

THE LONDON REVIEW

OF

Politics, Society, Literature, Art, & Science.

No. 371.—Vol. XV.]

SATURDAY, AUGUST 10, 1867.

[PRICE 4d.
Stamped, 5d.]

The Reform Bill.
The Meeting of the Emperors at
Salzburg.
International Maritime Law.
The Peninsular and Oriental Company.
Shooting Niagara.
The Thwaytes Will Case.
The Prevention of Bribery.

The Greenwich Knot.
Party Names.
Trinity College, Dublin.
The Moors.
Twopence More.
Seaside Moralities.
Letter-Writers.
Retreats.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

SCIENCE:—
Scientific Jottings.
MONEY AND COMMERCE:—
The Money Market.
REVIEWS OF BOOKS:—
Bunsen's Egypt's Place.
Marine Insurance.

History of Philosophy.
Scotch Divinity-Lectures.
New Novels.
The Late Prince Consort.
Catholic Psychology.
The Scientific Periodicals.
Short Notices.
Literary Gossip.
List of New Publications for the Week.

THE REFORM BILL.

ALTHOUGH the course which the House of Peers has pursued with reference to the lodger franchise is not calculated to reflect much credit on that assembly or to maintain its dignity in the eyes of the country, it is satisfactory that, even at the last moment, their lordships should have refrained from placing themselves in direct antagonism to the House of Commons on the subject of the franchise. The Earl of Malmesbury is, no doubt, primarily responsible for allowing them to take up a position which they could not maintain, and from which they have had to retreat at the expense of so much humiliation, as is involved in reversing a decision at which they had arrived by a decisive majority. But it would be unjust to visit the noble earl with the whole blame. He might have brought more prominently before the House the fact that the amount at which the franchise was originally fixed was the result of compromise or arrangement in the House of Commons. But even if he had done so, we doubt whether the result would have been different. The increase in the qualification for this suffrage from £10 to £15 was the genuine expression of that distaste for a wide measure of enfranchisement, and that fear of the sweeping changes introduced by the Government Bill, which even the authority and influence of Lord Derby have not been able altogether to suppress. Obedient as they are to their leaders; accustomed as they are, by this time, to support that which they have opposed, and to sacrifice their principles to the acquisition or the retention of place, it would be strange if the Conservatives could all at once cast aside the prejudices, and rise superior to the apprehensions, of which they have been so long the victims. It is true, as Mr. Disraeli said at the Mansion House, that the shrieks and screams which we heard some time ago have subsided into sobs and sighs; but although the Tories have resolutely shut their eyes to the danger, and made what Lord Derby describes as "a leap in the dark," it is evident enough that the brave words of confidence which they have taught their lips to utter find but a feeble echo in their hearts. Their real opinions are to be traced, not so much in their forced and unwilling concurrence in the main provisions of the Government Bill as in their persistent effort to pare it down, whenever they think that that operation can be performed without risk. If the alteration in the amount of the lodger qualification had called forth no expression of public feeling, we do not believe that it would have been retracted; and however welcome it may be in itself, the ignominious surrender of the House of Lords cannot make us forget that if they could have had their own way they would have disfranchised the working classes of the metropolis, and would have converted an important "vertical" into a mere "lateral" extension of the franchise. It is a matter for sincere regret that their lordships should have taken a course which has materially marred the grace of the concessions which they have made, and must necessarily create an unfavourable impression amongst the new constituencies. But it would perhaps be too much to expect that the members of a privileged order should have sufficient wisdom or patriotism to look forward with much satisfaction to a revolution—however peaceful—under which their power and influence will be materially diminished.

The introduction of the clause providing for the use of voting-papers at elections, is evidently due to the same spirit which

is seen at work in the alteration of the lodger franchise. It is an effort to save something, however little, out of the fire of democracy. Just as the adoption of household suffrage, in the opinion of Lord Malmesbury, is an effort to get at a Conservative "residuum" in one way, so the adoption of voting-papers is a means to attain the same end by another path. It appears to be supposed that there is, in most constituencies a class of persons who, from political indifference, timidity, or love of ease, can seldom be induced to poll under the present system, but whose tastes or distastes, if they can be got to express them, take a Conservative direction. To a certain extent this may be the case; but at the same time we must say that we do not think any great public advantage is to be gained by forcing votes upon people who have not sufficient courage or sufficient political earnestness to take the trouble, or encounter the trifling annoyance, of walking up to a polling-booth in the face of a crowd. It is the theory of our present system that voting should be an open and public proceeding, and unless we adhere to that principle it will be impossible to resist the introduction of the ballot. We cannot long refuse to adopt a measure which will extend a certain amount of protection to the really dependent classes of society if we depart from the established practice in order to meet the convenience of those who are not dependent, but are simply timid or indifferent. But the objections to voting-papers are not of a merely theoretical kind. It is obvious that the system is one which can only be carried out by a series of complicated arrangements, which must give rise to constant disputes, and must introduce, so far as it is called into play, an element of uncertainty into every contested election. Such has been the case at the Universities, where the practice is already in operation. According to Sir Roundell Palmer, he was constantly occupied during the last election for the University of Oxford in settling disputes which arose as to the validity of votes that were tendered; and when we see that under the clause which the House of Lords inserted in the Bill no fewer than a score of regulations must be complied with before a voting-paper can be properly filled up or duly received by the returning officer, it is not difficult to perceive the kind and extent of wrangling to which this method of exercising the franchise would give rise at every borough or county election. That is bad enough; but it is really very far from being the worst consequence of the voting-paper system. If the adoption of the ballot would discourage bribery, by preventing the briber from being certain whether he received value for his money, voting-papers would encourage it, by enabling him to ascertain that the vote is actually his before he parts with the consideration. The provision which requires that the magistrate before whom a voting-paper is signed shall himself transmit it to the returning officer, will prevent some abuses to which the system might otherwise give rise, but it will not diminish the facility which will be given to corrupt bargains by transferring the polling-booth to the drawing-room of a magistrate, who may be, and most likely will be, a strong partisan of the side whose voting-papers he is called upon to attest. That privacy will not be less favourable to intimidation than to corruption. It is already hard enough for certain classes of electors, especially in the country, to resist the pressure brought to bear upon them. But this difficulty will be greatly increased when it will be in the power of a landlord or an employer

to collect them together in his own house, and then and there to extort their votes from them. At present a number of men of independence may resist the undue influence, to which they are exposed, by the assistance of that mutual encouragement which they can give to each other. But their power of offering such resistance will be greatly diminished if they can be isolated and kept under the eye of their master until they have actually surrendered their vote into his keeping. That the part assigned to the magistrates in the working of this system must be most injurious to their position and compromising to their judicial character, is so obvious that it is partially admitted by Lord Cairns. And it is not less plain that a plan under which a man can, without expense and with little trouble, vote for every county in England, must facilitate very materially the creation of "faggot" votes, if either party should think it conducive to their interest to manufacture them on a large scale. We do not believe that the introduction of voting-papers would in any appreciable degree diminish the turbulence and riot and disorder which too often attend English elections; and we are certain that even if it did the advantage would be far too dearly purchased by the evils to which it would give rise. Upon the other amendments introduced by the House of Lords we need not dwell. We referred last week to the provision for the representation of minorities, and the increase of the copyhold qualification. The rest are of a comparatively trivial character; but unfortunately so far as they go they have all a restrictive tendency. By enlarging the redistribution portion of the Bill, by liberalizing its character, and by giving to it those elements of permanence which it wants at present, the House of Lords might have rendered essential service to the country, and have established a title to the confidence of the people. They have, however, thrown away a precious opportunity of increasing their influence, and adding to their moral weight as one of the estates of the realm; and instead of the gratitude they might have earned, they have only excited indignation and irritation by the ill-advised, meddlesome, and reactionary amendments, with which they have done their best to spoil a measure that with all its faults is essentially one of a large and generous character.

It is creditable to the House of Commons that so large a number of its members should have answered the call of the "whips," and have assembled in town at this unusual period to discuss the Lords' amendments. It would have been too much to expect that the debate should be conducted with the same deliberation, and should be marked by the same completeness in the month of August as in the month of May; but upon the whole, there was but little fault to be found with the general tone and character of the discussion. Under the circumstances, Mr. Disraeli had no alternative but to adopt the alterations which the House of Lords had been pleased to make in his measure; but he had too much regard for his own consistency to conceal the fact that, in supporting the representation of minorities in the three-cornered constituencies, he was only discharging an official duty. Probably both he and the members of the Government generally regarded with complete indifference the minor questions, which were disposed of before the real business of the evening commenced; but the House of Lords might with advantage take a lesson from the summary manner in which their attempts to swamp the boroughs of Oxford and Cambridge, to exact from the voters in certain boroughs the payment of additional rates, and to raise the copyhold qualification for counties, were frustrated by the good sense, and defeated by the decisive voice of the House of Commons. If argument could have carried the day, the speeches of Mr. Bright and Mr. Gladstone, on representation of minorities, would have insured the rejection of the Lords' amendment on that subject. But they had to struggle against a combination which it was hopeless to resist. While the Tories supported the proposition because they believe it will diminish the influence of the great towns, which are essentially the strongholds of Liberalism, a section of the Liberals, headed by Mr. Mill, took the same course, with a view to an ultimate revolution in the whole system of our Parliamentary representation. We regret the result of the division by which the Lords' amendment on this point was incorporated in the Bill; but the temporary triumph of the Conservatives will cost them dear. It will stimulate, as scarcely anything else could have stimulated, a renewal of the agitation for the purpose of amending the redistribution of seats, and it will probably give to that agitation an extreme and Radical character, from which it might have been free if this source of irritation had been withheld. As Mr. Gladstone truly remarked, the representation of minorities must sooner or later land us in electoral districts. It is perhaps for that reason an appropriate object of favour to a party, whose constant fate it is to pre-

cipitate the very changes which they regard with the deepest aversion and the most genuine apprehension.

THE MEETING OF THE EMPERORS AT SALZBURG.

AN event which, according to the newsmongering speculators of the Continent, must be pregnant with the most momentous political results, and which, in fact, may possess a certain political significance, is fixed to take place on the 16th of the present month. Napoleon III. and Francis Joseph meet once more, as at Villafranca, face to face. Since that famous interview in the hot summer of 1859, how many visible changes have been wrought in the European Commonwealth,—how many silent and all but unheeded revolutions have accomplished themselves. Austria, whose aggression had been daunted, but whose strength and even prestige had been hardly impaired by Solferino, has been stricken down helpless and despised by the terrible ruin of Sadowa. And as the power of the Habsburg House has waned, its old rivals, the House of Hohenzollern and the House of Savoy, have thriven by its fall. North Germany is united and free; Italy is united and free. The patient endurance of Hungarian patriotism has been rewarded by unwilling concession of that independence for which Deak and his brave followers so long and so unwaveringly struggled. Each of these changes would have sufficed to uproot the power of the firmest dynasty in Europe; all in fatal combination have reduced the Austrian monarchy to political nothingness. Yet it cannot be said that he who was in great part the author of these revolutions, and who certainly expected most to profit by them, has seen his anticipations realized. To diminish the Austrian influence by erecting on either side a confederation of small States hostile to the Habsburgs, and therefore subservient to French dictation,—this was unquestionably what Napoleon III. had hoped both from the war of 1859 and the war of 1866. Everything that he has intrigued for has failed. His Frankenstein-craft has raised up in Italy no despicable rival to his domination, and in Prussia a far more formidable and dangerous one. Outside of Europe, the ruin of the Southern Confederacy defeated all his political combinations and compelled him to a disastrous and shameful retreat from Mexico. To fill up the cup of his abasement, he has been doomed to see the Prince, whose throne he had prided himself on having erected, die the death of a felon at the hands of those whom French proclamations had insulted as crushed and cowardly rebels; and yet the necessities of policy forbid him to think of vengeance. Contrary to his own hopes and the confident prophecies of his admirers, the lapse of years has been far from favourable to the prosperity of the Bonaparte dynasty. The strength of the Emperor Napoleon's position is less assured to-day than it was in 1859 or 1866. What it may be next year few would be rash enough to predict.

Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that many should be disposed to see in the approaching meeting of the Emperors the inception of a new political scheme designed to counterbalance the too rapid growth of Prussian and Italian unity, to defeat at once the equally dreaded ideas of Bismarck and Mazzini. But we are bound to recollect that there are other and singularly weighty reasons why this interview should take place. It is no part of a newly adopted plan. Early in the year it was understood that the Emperor Francis Joseph, like the Czar, the King of Prussia, and the Sultan, was to accept French hospitality, for the purpose of taking a part in the grand pageant of the Exposition. Nobody then pretended to look on this contemplated visit as in any way significant. Then came, first in vague and flying rumours, afterwards in crushing detail, the miserable story of Maximilian's fate. We need not speak of the bitter anguish which this news must have caused the Austrian Emperor. He had been more or less than human if he had not felt for an instant something like hate and loathing while he remembered that the reckless ambition of Napoleon had done to death his noble brother. On the other hand, shame and sorrow and unavailing remorse cannot but have disturbed the French Emperor and made him unwilling to meet the brother of Maximilian. It was felt surely, on either side, as a relief that the decencies of mourning interfered to prevent the Austrian Court from taking part in the gaieties of Paris. But when the first feelings of pain and bitterness had worn away, it seemed, no doubt, right that no opportunity should be given to calumny—too much disposed already to insist on the alienation of France from Austria, and to talk of expiation for Maximilian's blood—for further dangerous innuendoes. Austria had favoured equally with France the fatal project of a Mexican empire; Francis

Joseph himself had fostered his brother's unhappy ambition. Therefore, all the guilt could not justly be laid at the door of Napoleon. And setting personal considerations aside, every political motive impelled both parties to seem, if not to be, united. Last year to French intervention the Austrian monarch owed his exemption from the crowning ignominy of being hustled from his own capital by the soldiers of Prussia: he may need like aid again. As for France, for all her wily policy she stands now as isolated in Europe as we do; she will not, cannot, scorn the meanest or the least honourable alliance. Since, then, it was impossible for Francis Joseph to accept the hospitality of the Tuileries, Napoleon III. was invited to Salzburg. There, on the western border of his now straitened dominion, among the invigorating breezes and the sublime scenery of the northern spurs of the Tyrolean Alps, the head of the Habsburgs is passing the melancholy retirement of his mourning; and there he, with his stately and beautiful Empress, is to receive in a few days the French Emperor and Empress. It is not ascertained whether the Imperial guests will be accompanied by any prominent French statesman, but it is distinctly stated, and though once contradicted has been generally believed, that Baron von Beust will be at Salzburg during the three days of the French visit. This, if true, certainly gives a political complexion to an otherwise unimportant occurrence.

Under constitutional governments the personal movements of royal personages are little regarded. It is assumed that they seldom influence, even indirectly, the current of political events. But the politics of despotisms are essentially personal, and, except where the ruler is a man of inferior intellect, must largely depend on his individual wishes and opinions. We need say nothing of Napoleon III.; his political capacity and his disposition to keep it in exercise, are acknowledged by everybody. Francis Joseph is not remarkable for ability; but he is industrious and intelligent, and has too much of the obstinacy of his family to remain long contented with being the puppet of any Minister. Notwithstanding, therefore, that in contemplation the visit to Salzburg has no political character, we think it highly improbable that it will terminate without acquiring something of the kind. The Emperors will be sure to discuss, with more or less candour, their position with regard to the other great Powers, and the chances of the further aggrandisement of Russia, Prussia, or Italy. It may be that the vague reports of a Russo-Prussian alliance will be thought of sufficient importance to suggest the natural countermove to such a combination, namely, an alliance between Austria and France. Whether Baron von Beust, who, though reactionary, is thoroughly German, would favour such a scheme may be doubted. Its ultimate, if not its avowed, object could only be to defeat, as far as possible, the ends which last year's war had all but secured for Prussia; to hinder, perhaps to undo, the unification of Germany; and, by separating Italy from the Northern alliance, to violate her politically and reduce her practically to the condition of a French viceroyalty. We would not attempt to predict that such plans as these have even a likelihood of being adopted by the Emperors, but it is too much to say that they have no chance of being considered. The tendency both of Napoleonic and of Austrian diplomacy has been favourable to tortuous intrigues and intricate combinations. But whether adopted or not, we have no hesitation in saying that, either to the interest of the Bonapartes or the Habsburgs, such an alliance as that hinted at could only be productive of ultimate misfortune. To ally France with a cause predestined to ruin, and given over to internal and incurable maladies, would be for Napoleon the acme of political folly. From Austria, hampered by the independence and the suspicion of Hungary, he could rely on no valuable military support, while he would rekindle Italian jealousies, and cut off the moral aid that Liberalism, however unwillingly, has given to the general tenor of his foreign policy. For Francis Joseph the French alliance would be equally dangerous and equally useless. If it were worth anything, if it essayed to destroy German unity, so long desired, so hardly won, it would alienate from him every German heart. His hereditary States would seek by one impulse a refuge and a protection in the Confederation, of which Prussia is the head. He would be forced to look only for defence and shelter to his Hungarian kingdom, which loving Prussia little, loves France less, and might in the final disruption of the Austrian empire be tempted to cast aside the last vestige of foreign domination—the sovereignty of the Habsburgs.

INTERNATIONAL MARITIME LAW.

We cannot help regretting that Mr. Mill should have lent the sanction of his high authority to those denunciations of

the Declaration of Paris which have been common enough during the last ten years, but which have generally proceeded from those who have a very imperfect acquaintance with the circumstances under which it was acceded to by the Government of Lord Palmerston, or with the reasons which made such a course practically imperative upon that administration. Even if we were to concede to the member for Westminster that we thereby deprived ourselves of an important weapon of offence and defence, we should dissent from his conclusion that we ought to withdraw from the arrangement made in 1856. But we must say, at the outset, that we think he enormously exaggerates the importance of the step which we took in that year when he says that, notwithstanding ten out of the last eleven years have been years of profound peace, we have been compelled, by the abandonment of our maritime right, prodigiously to increase our armaments in order to hold our own against the bloated armaments of other countries. We are wholly at a loss to understand how our adhesion to the rule that "free ships make free goods" has rendered us more exposed to the perils of foreign invasion; or how, by insisting upon the right to seize an enemy's goods in neutral ships, we should have been enabled, with a comparatively small army and navy, to cope with the greatly increased armies and navies of European nations and of the United States. The danger against which we have been forced to take precautions at so great and so lamentable an expense, arises from the increased strength of foreign Powers; and it is absurd to say that we could have remained indifferent to this if we had retained in our hands the power of searching neutral vessels for goods belonging to the citizens of any State with which we might go to war. We are equally at a loss to imagine how it can be maintained that we have been compelled to see great international iniquities perpetrated before our eyes because we cannot make use of the only argument—that of force—which will be listened to. As Mr. Mill did not specify the particular case or cases to which he alluded, we can only guess at the "international iniquities" which, in his opinion, we have tolerated, because we have given up the right to interfere with neutral commerce. But if we are right in supposing him to mean that but for the Declaration of Paris we might have interfered on behalf of Poland or on behalf of Denmark, we must say that such an argument could only be used in total forgetfulness of facts which have the most direct bearing upon it. If we had gone to war for either of those nations, we should have done so in conjunction with France, and in that case we should have been placed under as much stress as we were during the Crimean war, to accept the doctrine that "free ships make free goods" in order that the fleets of the two countries might act together. But even if we could have acted upon our old doctrine that an enemy's goods are liable to seizure in neutral vessels, it is very doubtful whether we could have inflicted upon Russia or upon Germany any materially greater injury than we might do while acting in accordance with the terms of the Declaration of Paris? It is true that we might have seized Russian or Prussian goods in American or other neutral bottoms; but the exercise of this right might be easily defeated by shipping such goods in the names of neutral owners—thus making the cargo as well as the ship neutral. The Russian or German merchant might thus have been put to a little additional trouble, but that would have been all; and it is idle to suppose that either the Government or the people would have been brought to terms by so trivial an annoyance. The truth is that from the ramification of commercial relations the facilities for an absolutely impenetrable falsification of ownership are now so great that there could never be much difficulty in protecting an enemy's property—not contraband of war—from seizure on board a neutral vessel. We could certainly only defend ourselves against this by subjecting neutral trade to such an amount of interference, and imposing upon it such restrictions as would speedily convert neutral into hostile Powers. It would indeed be difficult to show that any important effect has ever been exerted upon the issue of a war by the exercise in the fullest extent of the right to seize an enemy's goods in neutral ships; and so long as we can blockade the ports of any Power with which we may be at war, and drive from the sea his military and commercial marine, we need not fear that the influence of our maritime superiority will be materially diminished. It was certainly not from any apprehension on this score that we abstained from interference in either of the instances to which we suppose that Mr. Mill refers. Whether we acted rightly or wrongly on those occasions, our conduct was governed by considerations of policy, and not by any misgivings as to our strength.

But even if it were proved that we had by the Declaration of Paris given up something which it was our interest to retain,

we should still be of opinion that the Government of Lord Palmerston acted wisely in becoming parties to the Declaration of Paris, and that we should be very ill-advised if we were to reverse their policy. Although the old writers on international law are no doubt tolerably unanimous in affirming the rule that an enemy's goods may be seized on board a neutral ship, modern Continental writers have strenuously, and as we think justly, contended that it is utterly unsound in principle. But be this as it may, it is most important to observe that it has never been acknowledged by France; that on more than one occasion our attempts to enforce it have given rise to combinations amongst the neutral Powers, of which the armed neutrality of 1780 was a remarkable instance; that during the 125 years before the war of the French revolution, we ourselves concluded no fewer than thirty-four treaties, in all of which, with two exceptions, the principle was recognised that the ships of one party being neutral, should make the goods carried by them neutral also; and that although the United States acknowledge the validity of the English rule as embodying the existing law, they have never concealed their opinion that it is contrary to reason and inconsistent with the right of neutral Powers, and they have laboured strenuously to replace it by the opposite maxim that "free ships make free goods." Looking to these facts, it seems to us perfectly impossible that in any future naval war we should act upon a principle of which we are not only the sole defenders, but the authority of which we have so materially shaken by our own acts. If the neutral Powers rebelled against its application to their trade in times past, is it likely that they would be more tolerant now? Is it not evident that as the importance and extent of commerce increases, as war becomes more infrequent, and (when it does occur) is less general than it used to be—the neutral Powers will be more and more impatient at any interference with their trade on the part of belligerents? In order to answer the question, we need only place ourselves in the position of a neutral Power, and try to realize what would be our feelings if, on a war breaking out between France and the United States, our ships passing between Liverpool and New York might not only be stopped and searched by French cruisers, but might be carried into French ports for adjudication by a Court of Admiralty in case of there being any irregularity in the bill of lading or other shipping documents of such a character as to raise a doubt whether the cargo or any portion of it was really neutral property. It is plain enough that we should not for any length of time endure so monstrous an interference with our trade; and it is equally certain that neither France nor America would tolerate it from us if we should happen to be belligerents and they were neutral. If that is admitted to be the case, it can hardly be denied that it was better to abandon gracefully and frankly in time of peace a pretension which we could not enforce in time of war. That was avowedly the ground on which Lord Palmerston and his colleagues acted in 1856; and we cannot help expressing some surprise that Mr. Mill should have confined himself to protesting against the surrender of what he deems an important national weapon, without considering, except in the most cursory manner, whether it was possible for us to retain it or to wield it with effect. For our own part we do not think that it is, under existing circumstances, of anything like the value which he supposes; because, as we have already said, we believe that, in case of war, the enemy's trade would be carried on in neutral bottoms in spite of anything that our cruisers could do. But be that as it may, we are convinced that, looking to the strength of the other maritime Powers, some one or more of which would certainly be neutral in any war, it is absolutely necessary that we should in future rely upon measures of direct offence against the belligerent Power. The Declaration of Paris still leaves it open to us to blockade an enemy's ports; and although it may be true that, so far as the Continent of Europe is concerned, the inconvenience and injury thus caused is very materially diminished, there can be no doubt that a very serious loss must be inflicted upon any country which is compelled to carry on its trade by land instead of sea transit; and which has its whole maritime population reduced to a condition of idleness and of want. So long as we are able to annihilate the direct commerce of a State, we need be under no fear that our maritime superiority will be despised, or will fail to secure us a due share of influence whenever we may feel it necessary to exert it.

In order that we may preserve that position, we must not tie our hands in regard to any Power with which we may be at war. To avoid collision with a neutral is quite a different thing from sparing a belligerent. We can conceive

few things more absurd, and certainly none more futile and mischievous, than the idea of exempting the private property of an enemy from capture, and thus converting a war simply into a duel between two Governments. On this point we fully concur with Mr. Mill. If it were possible to carry out an arrangement of the kind, nothing—we agree with him—could be more inconsistent than for the merchants of two countries to be carrying on "a roaring trade" while the nations are at war. But the fact is that it never could or would be carried out for any length of time, or under circumstances less exceptional than those which existed in the late war between Prussia and Austria, both non-maritime Powers. Contraband of war, government stores and property, vessels engaged in or auxiliary to warlike operations, must of course still be liable to seizure. Now, even if both parties are desirous of observing good faith, no one can doubt that differences would soon arise as to what ships or vessels are not exempt from capture. Such differences occurring between two Powers actually at war would, as a matter of course, be followed by the immediate rupture of the convention and seizure of private property afloat. The Power which had most vessels or merchandise at sea would suffer the most severely from being taken thus unawares; and the advantage which one side might gain in this way would offer an irresistible temptation to an adroitly-planned surprise on the part of the other. It is almost unnecessary to say that any uncertainty on this point would tell with peculiar severity against England; and it is therefore clear that it would be far safer for our merchants at once to encounter the risks of war, in reliance upon the protection of our navy, than to depend upon the flimsy safeguard of a treaty or agreement which would certainly be violated as soon as this served the purpose of our antagonist. It would, moreover, be difficult to maintain the right of impeding neutral commerce by blockade, while the commerce of belligerents is free from interruption on the high seas; and it is obvious that if we were to make this further concession, our navy would be rendered nearly useless for any offensive purpose. Our true course is to respect the rights of a neutral; but we maintain intact the power of striking directly at a belligerent by any means which stout armour-clads and fast cruisers may place at our disposal.

THE PENINSULAR AND ORIENTAL COMPANY.

ONE of the reasons why England possesses a power which no other nation in the old world can boast is the freedom of action which our laws give to the individual, and the comparatively slight restraint they put upon his energies. In despotic countries, if the Government fails, all fails. There are no resources, independent of it, which in a moment of weakness or disorganization can come to its aid, take its place, and do its work. But there are such resources in England. At the time of the Crimean war there were private firms who were ready to undertake the work of the Commissariat and feed the British army at so much per head. Had their offer been accepted, it is possible, nay probable, that we should not have lost the ten or twenty thousand men who died of starvation on the bleak plateau before Sebastopol. The contractors would have taken care, for their own sakes, that the provisions reached the consumers, for otherwise they would not have been entitled to the stipulated payment. As it was, the remnant of the army was saved by Sir Morton Peto, who threw up his seat in Parliament where, except perhaps for his own interests, he was of very little use, and took out with him to the Crimea a ready-made railway, by which he bridged over the gulf between the provisions that lay rotting in Balaklava and the stomachs that pined for them in the camp before Sebastopol. It was during the same fearful campaign that another private firm carried for us 60,000 men, 12,000 horses, and 1,000 officers to the seat of war. This was the Peninsular and Oriental Company, without whose aid the British Government, badly as it succeeded in that ill-managed business, would not have succeeded as well as it did. But incomparably greater were its services during the Indian mutiny. We cannot even now recall that dreadful crisis without remembering how agonizing was the cry of "more men from England." What was of ten thousand times more value to us than the whole Indian Empire was at stake in the handful of Englishmen and Englishwomen who within the walls of Lucknow were expecting the fate which had befallen the unhappy garrison, and their still more unhappy wives and daughters in Cawnpore. Well was it for us at that moment that private enterprise had placed upon the seas the most numerous and the best manned mercantile fleet in the world. Again did the

P. and O. Company come to the nation's aid; and we do not overstate the fact when we say that in that crisis private enterprise rendered to the Government services of the most vital importance, which it was not in a position to perform for itself.

But these are only the occasional and extraordinary services which the P. and O. has performed for us. They are magnificent results of British enterprise in the hands of private citizens. But apart from them we are in decency bound to consider the ordinary and habitual services of this company. It has been the connecting link between us and our Eastern possessions. It has for a long series of years transported us bodily between England and Calcutta. More valuable still have been its services in connecting the mind, the affections, the fire-side sympathies, and the commercial interests of England and India. It has done the work of the Post Office ever since 1844, and it has done it so well that during the whole of that time not a single mail has been lost. It cannot be said that the subsidy it has received from the Government has been a very large one. It is, at a rough calculation, somewhere about a fifth of that paid by the French Government to the Messageries Impériales, and we must not forget that while it has been carrying our letters it has been displaying the British flag in the eyes of the Orientals, who, as we all know, are infinitely more impressible by appearances than the populations of the West. When this subject was talked over in the House of Commons last week, Mr. Laing expressed himself very strongly on the impolicy of allowing the French flag to be seen instead of the English, even in so pacific a matter as the conveyance of our mails. He said that nothing could be more dangerous than to allow Orientals to see the magnificent fleet of the P. and O. disappear and the ships of the Messageries Impériales take its place. No doubt he was right. Only a few evenings before this subject was discussed, the House had been urged, not unwisely, to incur any expense that might be necessary in order to compel the surrender of some fifty Englishmen who were held captives by the King of Abyssinia. Members most qualified from their personal experience to speak authoritatively upon the subject, maintained that our prestige in the East was of more value to us than the sword, and that it would be destroyed if we suffered a semi-savage in Africa to defy our remonstrances and reject our requests. But what, then, would be the effect of allowing the French flag and French ships to take the place henceforth of the P. and O., and its British bunting, in those seas in which they have for so many years borne practical testimony to the power of the English nation? It is beyond doubt that the effect would be most prejudicial to our influence. And, indeed, the idea of such a substitution is so startling, that it is hardly credible that any person having the least capacity for public business could make the mistake of proposing it.

But, strange to say, it has not only been proposed, but has to some extent been acted upon. Our Government has invited the Messageries Impériales to send in tenders for our Eastern packet-service. This extraordinary invitation has been made upon the principle that the economy of the public service is to be consulted before every other consideration—an utterly fallacious and mischievous position. We know not whether the P. and O. would be able to survive the withdrawal of the postal subsidy, but as the subsidy amounts to about a sixth part of the sum required to cover its current expenses, we can readily understand that its loss would be a severe blow. But this is not a mere question of the withdrawal of a subsidy; it is a question of the transference of that subsidy to a foreign competitor, which is already largely subsidized by its own Government, and which is not, like the P. and O., the result of private enterprise, but has a most intimate connection with the policy of the Emperor Napoleon. It is now about five years since the operations of the Messageries Impériales were extended to India and China under the direct action of the French Government, with a view to increase its commercial and political interests in the East. No money was spared to promote this design. The subsidy of the P. and O. is 4s. 2d. per mile; that of the Messageries, secured to it for twenty years, is 20s. per mile. Over and above this the French Government advanced the Messageries £500,000 out of the Imperial treasury, in addition to a donation of £75,000. We should say that in all conscience the P. and O. has difficulties enough to contend with, in competing with the French Company, without having its subsidy withdrawn from it, and handed over to its rival. The competition is already so unequal that it should rather entitle the P. and O. to claim an advanced mileage rate for the postal service. It is, in fact, a competition between a private company and a powerful Government, astute enough to see the immense commercial

and political advantages it would gain by underbidding the P. and O., and even carrying our letters for nothing if by such means it could run the English company off the road. To talk of economy in the face of such considerations as these is the wildest absurdity. It is true that the Government have left themselves free to reject any tenders that may be sent in, and that they are not bound to accept even those most favourable in an economical point of view. But it is a fair ground of complaint that the Messageries Impériales have been invited to tender at all. It at least shows that the Government, at the time of giving that invitation, seriously contemplated the monstrous impolicy and injustice of supporting the French Government in its attempt to supersede the P. and O.

SHOOTING NIAGARA.

THERE are few men who have reached thirty years of life, who cannot look back with pleasure upon the time when they first read the writings of Mr. Carlyle. To the young—to those just entering upon life, which stretched before them with its vast expanse, a peculiar charm was felt in Mr. Carlyle's writings. The gleams of humour, the snatches of eloquence, the passionate earnestness of the preacher, stirred vague feelings. But Mr. Carlyle's writings have done even more than this. He has raised up a transcendental school. Its most prominent disciples are Mr. Froude, Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Kingsley, and the author of "Guy Livingstone." Mr. Froude's Henry VIII. would probably never have existed had not Mr. Carlyle's Cromwell been already painted. Mr. Ruskin's views on political economy are taken straight from the pages of the denouncer of Bentham. Mr. Kingsley's "Hereward" is a Carlyleian ideal, whilst Mr. Lawrence marks the decadence of Carlyleism in its worst and most material form. Mr. Carlyle has certainly made his mark upon the literature of the day. It is quite true that his worshippers are men of a weak poetical kind of mind. In spite of all Mr. Froude's vague declamations about his hero, in spite of Mr. Ruskin's political economy, in spite of Mr. Kingsley's giant muscles, the laws of evidence are not altered,—Adam Smith is not displaced, and the biceps muscle is not considered as a proof of honour and integrity. On the other hand, however, Mr. Carlyle has found himself more and more in direct antagonism with the practice of the day. Whilst he and his followers have been preaching transcendentalism, the world has been acting more and more upon utilitarian principles. Whilst he has been advocating Toryism, the world has been accepting Liberalism. The more he and his followers have preached idealism, the faster has an exactly opposite school risen.

And proportionately as these changes of opinion have taken place, so have Mr. Carlyle's utterances become wilder and more spasmodic. Each new book that he has published has still more and more shown a mind undisciplined—has revealed more and more in growing ugliness the results of unbridled license. Of late years he has taken no pains to conceal his contempt for the great body of his fellow-creatures. He has couched his thoughts, too, in a jargon which reminds us more of the language of Browning's Spanish monk than of anybody else:—

"Blasted lay that rose-acacia
We're so proud of. Hy, Zy, Hine!
'St! there's vespers. Plená gratiá.
Ave Virgo! Gr-r-r you swine!"

And "Gr-r-r you swine!" has for the last twenty years been Mr. Carlyle's burden. He has not hesitated in his "Frederick the Great" to denounce this fair earth as "a rotten dunghheap of a world." He proclaims in his discourses on the negro question, that there is only one remedy for man—"a collar round his neck, and a cartwhip over his back."

Knowing all this, we are not at all surprised at Mr. Carlyle's last utterance in *Macmillan's Magazine*, "Shooting Niagara: and After?" We should have been much surprised had it been anything different to what it is. The man who has consistently all his life admired the doctrine of Force, is not so much likely to be convinced of his error, as to raise a fresh scream at the spectacle of a great nation fast progressing to self-government. The man who latterly seems only to have felt any remorse when he remembered that white men cannot be sold and treated like slaves, is not likely to be touched by the thought of enfranchisement. The moral decrepitude of Mr. Carlyle's later writings has prevented us from even hoping that any such change could take place. Mr. Carlyle's latest utterance is nothing more than an echo of what he has said twenty times before. There are thoughts in his "Shooting Niagara" which correspond nearly word for word with others in his "Discourse on the Nigger Question." And yet it would be

unjust to say there is nothing new. The very first sentence shows us that there is a new hero yet to take his place in the Carlyleian Walhalla. Mr. Carlyle begins his paper with—"There probably never was since the Heptarchy ended, or almost since it began, so hugely critical an epoch in the history of England as this, . . . in which, with no Norman invasion now ahead, to lay hold of it, to bridle and regulate it for us, and guide it into higher and wider regions, the question of utter death or of nobler life for the poor Country was so uncertain." Here is a chance for the Froudes and the Kingsleys. William the Bastard, as he called himself, is now to be whitewashed. The man who plundered our fathers, who strove to his utmost to extirpate our language, because he could not understand it,—the man who made killing a red deer of greater importance than killing a fellow-creature, is to be the new saint in the English hagiology. This, however, by the way. It is with the main question that we are most interested. And here we are not quite without some guidance—whether utter death or a nobler new life is reserved for England. The trade of prophecy is rather dangerous. Mr. Carlyle, however, cannot object if we judge his present prophecy by his previous performances in the same line. We have some recollection of the dismal vaticinations which he uttered seventeen years ago in his "Latter-Day Pamphlets." Not one of them, however, has come true. Anarchy has not yet overtaken us, and England still pays her dividends. The nation has gone on its own way. The remedies of the "Latter-Day Pamphlets" were unregarded, and its prophecies are still unfulfilled. We must therefore be pardoned if we refuse to be credulous both as to Mr. Carlyle's prophecies and remedies, especially when we discover that they are of exactly the same kind which he offered us nearly twenty years ago. We become weary, too, with having the same tale told us, especially when all practice negatives its truth. Bitter invectives against "self-government," caustic homilies upon liberty of conscience, loud tirades against Free-trade and Bentham, can now only be looked upon as literary curiosities. The words fall upon us meaningless. They are full of sound and fury, but signify nothing. To read such sentences in "Shooting Niagara" as "the fool of a world," "the Almighty Maker has appointed the nigger to be a servant," "servantship must become a contract of permanency," simply creates a smile. Our answer is not given by words, but by an appeal to facts. The world is certainly not so foolish as it was. Even in the short lifetime of a single man much improvement is visible. Much to soothe man's sorrow, much to increase his joys, has been wrought even within Mr. Carlyle's own memory. Since the first Reform Bill passed, England may be almost said to be another and a better land. We are no optimists. We know too well by the very condition of things that life must have its shadows as well as its sunshine. Speaking broadly, however, we affirm that the condition of all men has improved during the present half-century. Justice, however much it may miscarry, is administered more fairly than ever it has been. The hand of charity—not indiscriminate, but thoughtful—has never been so open. Museums, reading-rooms, mechanics' institutes, and hospitals have been built for the poor. Gardens are thrown open to the public. New schools are daily being opened, and lectures given. The material requirements and pleasures of life are cheaper and better than they ever have been. The poor are better clothed and better fed than at any other period of our English history. Science, too, has wrought no less benefits than trade. The middle classes can now take their holiday, and visit the Continent, and the artisan by excursion trains can leave the workshop, and see something of his own land. There is, of course, a dark side to all this. Material wealth brings with it new dangers. The workman may spend his wages in drink and vice, and the servant-girl deck herself out in sham jewellery. But the darker side is daily becoming less dark, whilst the brighter side grows more bright. If Mr. Carlyle will see only the shadow, we cannot help it. We ourselves prefer to look at the substance. As for Mr. Carlyle's remedies, they have already been tried. There was a day when both black and white men were slaves. The experiment, however, of feudalism is over. No return to it is now possible. In vain Mr. Carlyle may preach his homilies. It is neither in his nor in any man's power to reverse the present order of things. He might have done much good, but instead, he has preferred to do what little harm was possible. He has made, as we have said, some mark on the literature of the day, but none on the real work of the age. He has sat still in his study and cursed progress, whilst others have borne the heat and burden of the day. But the fault, perhaps, after all lies in Mr. Carlyle's peculiar temperament. He is too much in a hurry to reach the Golden

Age. Because he cannot find it ready made, he will manufacture Utopia. We, on the other hand, believe that all good comes slowly. Nothing which is done quickly is worth much. It is a long cry to Loch Awe. Because man is not suddenly transformed into an angel, we do not despair. There is a reverse to the "Nemo repente fuit turpissimus." A man's lifetime is but a short period in the history of the world. Stand on the shore for a moment, and you cannot tell whether the waters gain or lose. We commit the task of improvement to time, which is more powerful than the brief three score and ten years of man. And as to the moral of Mr. Carlyle's paper, we say emphatically this—it is better that Niagara should plunge over the falls headlong, than that it should be dammed up with artificial barriers; for in the one case it reaches its natural channel, but in the other it would only burst its bounds and destroy all within its reach.

THE THWAYTES' WILL CASE.

THE most zealous stickler for liberty cannot deny that Englishmen enjoy almost unlimited freedom in the making of their wills. It would be well, perhaps, if this freedom were somewhat curtailed. Justice and decency are scandalized when a testator capriciously enriches one of his children to the exclusion of the rest, or perhaps pushes them and their mother aside for the sake of his mistress. It is impossible, moreover, to prove undue influence in all the cases in which we may be morally sure that it has been used, or to gauge the extent to which infatuation has had a share in the concoction of any will. But the energy of our race will not listen to such reasons for the abatement of its liberty in doing what it likes with its own, nor will it give ear to the arguments that might be advanced to show that in this case its own is not always its own. The result is that many wills are made repugnant to natural affection, repugnant to justice, and in a considerable number of cases contrary to dispositions more agreeable to the testator himself, and which he would have directed had he made his will when he was in a state of health, and not when stretched upon a bed of sickness. Others are the result of that unaccountable fascination to which weak, ignorant minds—and ignorance is more or less weakness—are subject, and which is exercised upon them by minds stronger than their own. In Mrs. Thwaytes's case, had it not been that the evidence established a clear case of monomania, her will would have been established. It must not be argued that the will and the monomania must be considered together, as so indissolubly united that, if the monomania had not been, the will would not have been made. The cases are abundant of persons who have become so attached to strangers that in their testamentary dispositions they have preferred them to their own flesh and blood. It is hardly a wise law which permits this. We call it liberty of action. But is it quite so? Has the subject of the infatuation the power of exercising his own will? Of course it would be immensely difficult to legislate upon all the phases which such a question would develop. But upon some of its phases there could be little doubt. For example, while her husband was lying dead in 1834, Mrs. Thwaytes made the draft of a will bequeathing all her property to Dr. Smith, one of the plaintiffs in the late trial in the Court of Probate, with the exception of £50,000. Supposing that will had been perfected, and that she had died after making it, would it have been too great an interference with the liberty of the subject if the law were such that it could be set aside, at the suit of Mrs. Thwaytes's relations? The law would have done nothing of the kind; nor would it have refused its sanction to the will of 1866, which entitled Dr. Smith and his brother, as residuary legatees, to nearly £200,000, if it had not been that the testatrix was shown to have been a monomaniac. A clearer case of insanity was never made out—of that insanity which precludes the idea that the person subject to it was of "sound and disposing mind, memory, and understanding," at the time she made her will. It requires some courage to repeat the more prominent signs of her monomania. She believed that she had constant communication with the Creator, that she was the Third Person of the Blessed Trinity, and that Dr. Smith was the Father. She believed, again, that she was above God seven degrees; that she sent the cholera or the influenza through all creation, and that it had to go through her first; that the brutes had been attempting to poison her; that one stage of her work was blindness; that she had gone through the new birth, and that every bone and sinew and drop of blood had been made new; that if the Almighty lost her everything would go to chaos; that she was about to bring forth the Saviour of the World; that the Tebbitt family (her

sister and her children) were doomed to everlasting perdition; that the judgment of the world was to take place in her drawing-room in Hyde Park; that Dr. Smith knew everything she did; that she was the first great cause and the pivot on which the whole world hung; that at one stage of the work the Doctor required large sums to carry it on; that it seemed foolish for her to make a will as she was immortal, but she must act in nature; that she had a headdress of hair and a coronal of diamonds made expressly for the Judgment-day; that Mrs. Curtis was a child of God, and was obliged to fall on her knees and worship her, for she knew she was the Holy Ghost; that when the work was finished they would have Buckingham Palace and Windsor Castle; that she and the Doctor made the thunder and lightning, and were in their glory in a good thunderstorm; that they were the Supreme Beings, and communicated together though they were absent from one another, and that they were to take part in the Judgment, together with the Lord Jesus Christ. It is needless to go into further evidence of such a woman's incapacity to make a will. But apart from the religious hallucination there was nothing strong enough to upset the validity of the will.

Yet Mrs. Thwaytes was precisely one of those persons who are apt to do capricious and unjust things; to be very strong while they are acting under the guidance of those who have obtained an influence over them, and very weak in resisting that influence. Neither her husband nor herself were persons of a capacity to rule wisely over so large a sum as £400,000. All that the husband seems to have done in regard to it was to make it and live upon it. When he died, he shovelled it over to his wife, an illiterate woman, who had been his housekeeper, and who, had he left her an annuity of twenty pounds a year, would perhaps have retained her senses. The sudden exaltation consequent upon finding oneself the possessor of nearly half a million of money will act differently upon different persons. There is a story of a man who found himself in a somewhat similar position, and who then and there vowed that for the rest of his life he would revel in rump-steak and onions. People have been killed by good news; and another Arabian Nights' Entertainment might be written on the varieties of delirium which unexpected good fortune has produced. In an age when the worship of the Golden Calf is the prevailing religion—when money goes so far to make vice respectable, and when the want of it attaches such an odour of disrepute even to virtue—a tradesman's housekeeper and widow might easily entertain exaggerated notions of her importance when she found herself mistress of nearly half a million of money, and able to wield despotically all the influence so handsome a legacy could bestow. She need not go mad in order to make a ridiculous use of her power. Without the help of monomania, she might have been led into the belief that Dr. Smith was essential to her existence, was her staff and her prop, her wisest counsellor, her staunchest friend. He might have persuaded her that he alone possessed the knowledge of her constitution and the secret of her health; and that if she fell into other medical hands, she would presently be involved in incalculable woes. It is a trick common amongst medical practitioners of the general class to produce this impression on the minds of their patients, especially when they are women; and Dr. Smith is either to be blamed or commiserated, according as he encouraged Mrs. Thwaytes's hallucination, or combated it in vain. It would have been infinitely better for him and his brother had his patient not conceived that dreadful idea of false identity which has put the well-meaning but unfortunate Smiths out of court. We say "well-meaning," because, supposing they had any influence on the testatrix, in directing the disposition of her property, they used it with a sparing and considerate hand, taking only about £200,000 for themselves, and leaving the remaining £200,000 to be distributed in legacies "to almost every individual," says Sir J. P. Wilde, "man or woman, in whose society the testatrix moved, or who could be said socially to know anything about her," so that "the tendency of their dispositions to close the channels of evidence, and narrow the memories of witnesses, can hardly be doubted." Only for the hallucinations, this self-denial would not have been exercised in vain, nor would virtue have been left to be its own reward. But, supposing the hallucinations had not entered into the merits of the case, would it not have been hard that two strangers should be the residuary legatees of the will, to the exclusion of Mrs. Thwaytes's sister, and her family, who stood nearest to her in blood, and who had the best right to succeed to her possessions, if "blood is thicker than water"?

THE PREVENTION OF BRIBERY.

MINISTERS, we presume, will not lose sight of their promise, that the amendment of the laws relating to the

suffrage should be accompanied by the enactment of provisions calculated to prevent bribery. We advert to the subject the more because we are anxious to direct attention to a proposal which we have seen, and which we understand has obtained some private circulation. It is one which seems deserving of consideration, and it contains suggestions which might be used in aid or supplement of other measures. Our readers are aware that under the existing law it is open to any person to bring an action against those guilty of bribery at an election, and to recover for each act of bribery a penalty of £100. This power is not very generally resorted to, but there are cases in which it has been effectually used. The proposal to which we refer is based upon the existence of this penal action, and is in effect a suggestion to make it more effectual as an instrument for punishing bribery than it is now. In this, as in all other actions, the law enables the plaintiff to exhibit interrogatories to the defendant, so as to elicit from him answers to sustain the plaintiff's case. In this action, however, the privilege is useless, because bribery being a criminal offence, no one is bound to answer so as to criminate himself. It is proposed to alter the law in this respect, and to compel any person against whom an action is brought for bribery to answer on his oath as to the facts upon which the charge against him is founded. Such a provision inserted in the next renewal of the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act would unquestionably make the penal action conferred by that statute a very formidable instrument for the detection and punishment of bribery. Every man who bribed, or who accepted a bribe, would know that he did so at the peril of being compelled upon his oath to disclose it. There seems no good reason for continuing the protection. Bribery is made a criminal offence with the object of discouraging it. The effect is to give it protection. If one man is alleged to owe another £100 upon a bill of exchange, he can be interrogated as to his acceptance of the bill, and the consideration for which it was given. He has no protection against answering these questions. Why should he have it when the £100 is claimed because he bribed at an election? It would be a far more effectual remedy against bribery to abolish altogether its criminal character if the continuance of that character is to involve protection against confessing it in a civil action.

The first suggestion of the scheme to which we have referred is that when an action is brought to recover penalties under the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act, the defendant should be compelled to answer interrogatories as in any ordinary action. It would still be necessary to make some provisions against the defeat of such an action by a collusive proceeding at the suit of a friend. In penal actions, where the proceeding can be taken by any person who chooses to sue for the penalty, the first action that is brought is, of course, a bar to another action at the suit of any one else. The courts of law have decided that in such a case they have no right to inquire whether the first action is collusive or not, and a scheme is occasionally resorted to of bringing an action in the name of a friend. The institution of such a suit is in the present state of the law a conclusive protection to the guilty person, and even although the collusive action be never proceeded with, the mere fact of its institution is a bar to any other. A remedy might easily be found for this. It would, of course, be manifestly unjust that two different persons should bring actions to recover the same penalty. But it would be quite reasonable to insist that the action should be brought with a real intention of prosecuting it. And unless the first action were proceeded with, a second ought not to be stayed. It would be very easy to give to the court the power of putting an end to the first action when they were satisfied that it was collusively brought.

These changes in the law would make the action for penalties a real and effectual means of punishing bribery. What is of even more importance, they would supply a very stringent mode of detecting it. The last part of the proposal involves somewhat more questionable considerations. It is, that whenever bribery is established by an action at law against either a sitting member or his known agent, this should be grounds for a petition to the House of Commons, even although the time for presenting an election petition had expired. By the present law of Parliament, a petition complaining of an election must be presented within fourteen days after the return, or of the next meeting of Parliament. No doubt it is of importance that members should not be exposed for an indefinite time to have their return questioned. On the other hand, it is equally true that it tends to diminish the risk that attends bribery, if you give an assurance to the successful briber that if he can conceal for fourteen days the evidence of his guilt he is secure in the enjoyment of its fruits. An action

for penalties may be brought within twelve months after the commission of the act of bribery. In the present state of the law it may happen, and has actually happened, that the verdict of a jury may establish the commission of bribery at an election, while the very man who is so convicted of bribery continues to sit as member by virtue of that very election.

We have in our mind a very remarkable instance of this, which has occurred in the case of an Irish borough. A noble lord is now sitting for that borough, and very probably voted for the disfranchisement of Lancaster and Great Yarmouth. The fourteen days allowed for presenting a petition have long since passed. A short time ago, in an action for penalties, a verdict was found against one of his avowed agents for the bribery of an elector. Had the same facts been proved upon the trial of a petition presented in proper time, we need scarcely say the noble lord must have been unseated. Because the proof has been made in a court of justice a year after the election, he retains a seat, even in the face of two different decisions of juries, that his agents had carried his election by bribery. We briefly sum up the suggestions of the proposal to which we have adverted. First, that in any action for penalties brought under the Corrupt Practices Prevention Act, the defendant should not be permitted to refuse to answer interrogatories as to bribery on the ground that the answer would criminate him. Secondly, that provision should be made to prevent a collusive action being a protection against such proceeding. Thirdly and lastly, that when in such an action the penalty for bribery is recovered against either a sitting member or any of his agents, this should be the ground of a petition against the return of the member, although the usual time for petitioning had expired. There may be objections to this proposal which we do not see. It appears, at all events, to suggest remedies well worthy of consideration. The expense of an election petition is in itself a very great bar to the thorough investigation of bribery. The inquiry in a court of law is cheaper and more effectual, but under the existing regulations of the House of Commons such an inquiry can never take place in time to peril the seat. It would, we think, be a very effectual discouragement to bribery if at any time a verdict obtained in a court of law where to open the Parliamentary investigation. It would be still more effectual if it were enacted that, in every case in which penalties were recovered in an action of law, the House of Commons itself should appoint a committee to investigate the matter, with power to unseat the member in the same way as if a petition had been presented before an election committee. One great evil in our present system is that election petitions are treated as the private suits of individuals. All attempts to graft upon them the character of public prosecutions have failed. It would not be unreasonable to say that when a private individual had established the actual fact of bribery by the decision of a legal tribunal, the House of Commons should vindicate its own honour by itself originating a further investigation. We are quite sure that in the proposal of which we have thus sketched the material parts, there are suggestions that may be useful hints in the framing of any measure honestly intended for the more effectual prevention of bribery at elections.

THE GREENWICH KNOT.

THE mantle of Eldon still hangs on the shoulders of a chosen few in the ranks of army, navy, and church. His spirit is still at hand to rally his sons in their unequal warfare with the phantasms of freedom and reform, and to shed tears such as angels weep over those who have swerved in the race at the sight of the golden apple. This session the running has been very untrue. But though the issue has always been sure from the moment that mankind gave up the old motto of "Whatever is, is best;" yet the chosen remnant fight stoutly on, to fall at the foot of the old barriers. The back-currents are strong enough to take men off their legs, as they are hurrying to land. Yet, as far as theory goes, it is virtually conceded that liberty of speech and personal freedom do not embrace the whole framework of good government, especially when in the one case you may speak for ever without being answered; and, in the other, your freedom alternates between the workhouse and starvation. What Mr. Lecky would call the "rationalism" of the age has suggested that the conflicting elements of parties are not all-sufficient in curing the radical effects of our organization. So a class of men has arisen who have become the prophets of this new cult. Not the leaders of parties, for they are the horses who drag the coach up-hill and stop it as it goes down; they cannot turn aside to the right hand or to the

left. If they did so, the coach would look out for other "machiners" to conduct it slowly and steadily along the old road. Look at Sir Robert Peel and his rebellious crew. These prophets are mere individuals, it may be philosophers, who are acquainted with subjects which the majority pretend to know by prescription, and who are accordingly snubbed in proportion to their real knowledge. Mr. Seely is one of these men. A generation back he would have been treated with the scant courtesy which was the meed of Joseph Hume. But now, however deaf the House may be, the ears of the public are open, and he is appreciated at his true worth by men who can see through the dangles and buffoons of the Commons. As regards the army, the Crimean war pointed out rather rudely the mischief of running in the old groove, and the folly of that optimism which took everything for granted. But little has been done in this branch of the service owing to the love of pipeclay, which seems inseparable from the British officer. Take, for example, in this week's debates, an argument by one of its choicest specimens. We are not speaking ironically. The character of General Peel has deservedly endeared him to the Lower House. His chivalrous bearing, his straightforwardness, and political honour, which has formed so marked a contrast to the venal tergiversation of his late colleagues, have given him almost a unique position amongst his fellows. The Opposition take a pride in a representative who is honest; whilst the Ministerialist party cheer him partly from sympathy, partly through shame. Yet this Bayard tries to quash an appeal made by an officer against the injustice of his superior, on the plea that, if this were allowed, at some future time the House would have to listen to the complaints of corporals and privates. The empire would survive the shock, however fatal it might be to the aristocratic bias of the Horse Guards. On these grounds the army is, for the present at all events, hopeless. The navy is a shade better. But this amelioration is chiefly owing to such men as Mr. Seely. The Admiralty without his spectacles could see no merit in Captain Cowper Coles; and the ill-judged energy shown by Sir John Pakington in building a fleet of wooden ships might have been still the boast of his *claqueurs* but for the practical lesson which we learned in the American war.

Mr. Seely, in his capacity of naval critic, was naturally enough interested in Greenwich Hospital. That admirable institution has many claims upon our interest. It was a legacy left to the nation by one of our kings, whose solid qualities have outlived and thrown in the shade the brilliant vices of his predecessors—left for the benefit of our most popular heroes, and its revenues and their welfare deserved to be watched over with the strictest scrutiny. But in 1865 it was ascertained that the former were squandered and misapplied, whilst its inmates were uncomfortable and discontented. Of course the whole question was referred to a committee, that salve for the diseases of the body politic, as old and as mischievous as blood-letting. For it deadens the conscience, and gives the semblance of relief, though the last state is often worse than the first. Still, an Act was passed, and the state of the veterans was much improved. The majority of them, instead of hanging about the park looking out for sixpences from compassionate visitors, went back to be tended by their relations at home. At the present time 375 remain in the hospital, and this week's debate really turned on the management of this forlorn hope. For the most part they are permanent invalids, spending the remains of their existence on their pallet-beds, and though they deserve every care, they certainly could not require the aggregate of expenses, which was entailed by the original body of 1,600. Under the old *régime* each man cost £13. 0s. 6d. a head, the estimate made by the Commissioners was £24. 5s., but the actual cost has been £80 under the revised code. This was blot number one. To account for this seeming anomaly we have to go into the details of management. We find there that the present system employs five more clerks than it was calculated would be necessary for 2,300 inmates. There is a captain-superintendent with an income of £800 a year, and two lieutenants with £460 each. But the greatest luxury is the comptroller, whose duties, it is stated, might be perfectly performed by other members of the staff. The salary of this fortunate official is £1,400 a year. This is blot number two. But perhaps the most singular case of supererogation is the staff of police. Mr. Seely remarks that the borough of Lincoln, with 20,000 inhabitants, has 24 policemen. But Greenwich Hospital, with 375 octogenarians and 800 boys, has 18 guardians of the peace. What their duties are does not appear. It may be that the school is subject to *émeutes*, in which case, no doubt, a strict watch is required. But we are inclined to think the well-known social qualifications

of Policeman X are brought to bear on this point. A paternal Government is aware that these bedridden servants are in want of amusement, and it retains certain men of chatty propensities to eke out the long hours. We think nurses would be cheaper. This is blot number three. The question of medical attendance is a graver one. It is decidedly undesirable that the pensioners should be indulged in the passion for pills, which, beginning towards middle life, assumes all the characteristics of a mania on the verge of old age. Yet the present establishment costs £2,085 against £3,539, which is the calculated cost of medicine for 2,300 men. This is blot number four. Lastly, there is the school, which is supposed to be a nursery of seamen. The Commission thought, in our opinion wisely enough, that the standard of education as at present maintained was absurdly high in comparison with the object to be reached. This object is to give a sound foundation of knowledge, which would qualify the pupils for being active and intelligent seamen. They in consequence put down the sum of £3,510 for this purpose, to cover the instruction of 1,050 boys. But at present 800 boys cost £8,456. And to sum up this part of the case, the expenses of management amount to £10,249, whilst the cost of maintenance and education is £12,750, a disproportion which may suggest a very complete form of instruction, but which suggests at the same time considerable profit to the masters. This is blot number five. Such is the *résumé* of Mr. Seely's allegations. As we should have anticipated, judging from our point of view, Mr. Corry had little to say in reply. He indeed stated that at Haslar Hospital the outlay was similar, and that the comptroller had been appointed by another Government, but he apparently ignored the fact that one bad turn does not deserve another, and that mismanagement of resources and misapplication of patronage imply blame in those who continue these evils nearly as much as in the author.

The real fact is, that we do not distinguish between justice and generosity. In cases of signal distress no purse is so open as the Englishman's. But with regard to vested interests we are slothful to a degree. We lay up our institutions in lavender, and we are prepared to use the Communion service against those who wish to expose them to the daylight. That our workhouses are reformed is owing to a commercial speculation undertaken by an enterprising contemporary, and our only chance of similar reforms lies with similar philanthropists, or with the new Parliament. We go on through life, murmuring like so many lotos-eaters, "We will return no more," and we heed not the train in our rear, of folly, mismanagement, and vice.

PARTY NAMES.

SOME time since, Mr. Lowe adverted to the vicissitudes that vex party associations, and deface or utterly destroy party names. He just said enough to attract one to a consideration of this wayside but highly significant theme. When he did so he was at the height of a great argument in favour of comfortable prescription; for he had just hoisted his storm-signal near the shoals of democracy, and was venturing to conjure the back benches of Toryism not to forget their traditions and the rallying cry of their ancestors. The victory, he assured them, was no longer to the squires if their election Tallyho availed not or was blindly discarded. Not even Merlin could charm if the spell were broken. It was their bounden duty, therefore, to steer clear of all difficulties that stood hard in the face of their principles. Above all, they were to hold fast the cherished appellation of their house and party. The advice was not bad, even if mistaken. Indeed, such a thing as a party name if it has a respectable lineage—no matter what was its first meaning—becomes with most of us an object of profound and lasting attachment. Being a mere symbol, it symbolizes what we admire and approve. In time it may speak a different sentiment and show a different colour. Still our affection for it remains, even after its sway over us has vanished. So long as it is the faithful index of our prejudice or principle, it is potent and irresistible. History is replete with instances of the marvellous influence exercised by such a name. It is the cynosure of the ignorant populace, and it is the whetstone of the educated politician. Without it the fire, and, we may add, the virulence, of party contests would be perceptibly assuaged. In the heat of debate it is a never-failing stimulant. It is a fiery cross, rousing the sympathies of partisans and the intolerance of zealots. And in the hour of defeat it is something to cling to when all else is lost. Hereditary dullards are wakeful enough when appealed to in the name of their fathers, for they associate the ancestral

voices with the name and fame of the family battle-cry. Mr. Lowe knows this, and his insight was his cue. It was on his card to insinuate that, having flung aside the term Tory, the quondam followers of Sir Robert Peel were once more about to blight their reputation by rushing to a revolutionary extreme, and thereby ostensibly and actually abandoning Conservatism as they had already abandoned Toryism; for a name in itself so brimful of memorable significance could not possibly outlive the abnegation of the principles it symbolized.

There was a touch of pathos in Mr. Lowe's voice when he alluded to the graves of parties that obstruct the highway of American history. Although he has himself found no weight or stay in his party name, it was not unnatural that he should deliver an ornate wail over the destruction of innocent appellations. But he was not happy in his remarks or convincing in his inferences. Where so many fluctuating passions alternately claim predominance and take to themselves a name whereby they may be distinguished, it was not a serious task to gather illustrations of the rise and fall of parties, or more correctly of the momentary eclipse of certain principles in the disappearance of one name and the appearance of another name equally meaningless. With one exception, the American words Mr. Lowe cited were not the names of parties any more than the endorsements of greenbacks. They were simply the grotesque epithets of factions, over the demise of which the most lachrymose statesman could hardly afford to drop a tear. For who knows, or for all that, cares anything about the Know-nothings? Or, who concerns himself with the Dough-faces or the Hunkers? The names are obviously little more than derisive, and are as obviously unimportant. They may for a brief space have brought the ostentatious professors of a morbid patriotism and the Northern pro-slavery men into contempt, but further they were of no avail whatsoever. And it is well to recollect, even when Mr. Lowe does not, that party and faction are not convertible terms. Burke has considerably and conclusively determined that party connections are essential to the full performance of public duty, though accidentally liable to degenerate into faction. Parties, in fact, arise naturally and of necessity, and are the product of those social interests with which the individual members are bound up. An impartial party, one purely of principle, having its creed drawn from truth and its aim set in justice, must be looked upon as simply Utopian. No such party has ever existed, and in the absence of a political millennium, never can exist. It is true that liberty may be the touchstone of one party, and authority the touchstone of another party, but in either case the touchstone is carved out of a conviction that the party is likely to gain most and to suffer little or nothing from the side it espouses.

Factions and the names of factions are begotten in another way. Principle is not necessary to cement their composition, or to prolong their vitality. When the occasion that gave them birth dies, they sicken and are easily crushed. When they live long they alter their condition greatly, growing and strengthening into stalwart parties, and emancipating themselves from the peevishness and meanness of their first nature. So it was with the Guelphs and Ghibelines. They were originally factions in the narrowest sense, latterly they were diverted from this circumscribed sphere to become party names in the widest sense. No party names were ever so universally known, or implied so much. And it was only when they degenerated into factions again that they had their quietus. Thus it is invariably and inevitably with factions. They are the expedients of knaves or tricksters, or the ebullitions of a miserable passion. They are the children of impulse, although occasionally mellowed into tenacious conviction and persistent action. Or, if we look at them exactly as they appeared where they were always rampant we perceive how mountains have laboured to bring forth their tiny offspring. The name of faction-fight in Ireland is enough to recall all that we desire to indicate. The wars between the Lombard cities during the Middle Ages display factions in their loftiest vocation. But we must watch the wheel within the wheel. Factions have ever been, strictly speaking, little beyond the partisans of houses. Such were the Neri and Bianchi, and the various factions associated with the name of Medici, in Florence. Such, also, in later times were the Colonesi and Orsini of Rome. The rivalry of the Montagues and Capulets is a typical and vivid example of what was common in other cities besides Verona. Many a poor Mercutio then as now felt urged to cry "a plague o' both your houses." There were, however, two mobbish factions of a livelier sort in Venice, who had periodical bouts with the gloves, and who may therefore be regarded as a kind of political fancy bearing their patron's names. The curious part about them was that so soon as their boxing was over for the nonce they fraternized cordially, thus foreshadowing

our modern parties, who do not allow political differences and parliamentary strife to interfere with social delights.

There is, moreover, a class of names having a higher special reference to the *leaders* of parties. In this way we speak of the parties of Lycurgus and Megacles in ancient times, leaving history to tell us what characterized the public life of those statesmen. Again, when the leader's name is prefixed to the party name it always suggests and presupposes some divergence of opinion in the same camp. As one of numerous examples the Grenville Whigs may be mentioned. Yet it is notable that fewer and less sharp divisions have occurred among the Tories than among the Whigs; the force of coherence, for obvious reasons, being more cogent in the one case than in the other. And while it would be tedious to recount all the instances of sectional differences among the Whig party, it is notorious that, excepting the Canning and Castlereagh "caves"—not larger in their day than the Cranborne "cave" is at present—the name "Peelites" is the only mark of a signal dissension among the Tories. Indeed, few men are able—Mr. Lowe, great as he is, has so far failed—to rear a standard of revolt round which the rank and file of the old parties will eagerly flock. Far less, then, can a man of feeble pretensions, even were he as wise as the Waltham calf, hope to create new and inspiring shibboleths. He is more likely to become, like Mr. Whalley, an isolated bore. It is, however, among philosophers and religious sects that this sort of baptism is most prevalent. The incessant and multiform splits among philosophers are best indicated by the names of the dissentients, *crochety* or otherwise, except in those cases where the essential ingredients of a system are transmuted. Nevertheless we are as well informed by the words Cartesian and Hamiltonian, as by Stoic, Gnostic, or Utilitarian. The names of religious sects or parties are adopted on similar grounds. There is, of course, the exceptional division into High, Low, and Broad Church, which, to an outsider, has a certain adjective propriety but nothing else. As a rule, the shibboleths of sects are derived from the founders, or from certain features of worship or doctrine. Thus we have Calvinists, Wesleyans, Irvingites (among others), all capable of definition; and we have Quaker and Methodist, not so soluble in their nature. Perhaps the most curious exception is furnished by the followers of Ziska. During the Hussite war they took the name of Taborites, from their renowned fortification, and of Orphans afterwards, from grief at the irreparable loss of their chief. Albigenses and Ultramontanes are examples also of *locality* of party giving rise to names.

But although it is generally perplexing to follow party names to their source, the origin and import of the chief political appellations is not far to seek. One thing is clear at the outset, and that is the contemptuous and derisive manner in which the names were applied. It is likewise clear that many were ultimately accepted and others indignantly rejected, and that many became obsolete when the need for them disappeared, while others remained after their origin was forgotten, and their cause abandoned. Such terms as Independent and Puritan linger still—for the one is certainly self-assumed and partly egotistical, and the other is flattering and consoling. Quaker, too, survives; but it is sustained by the enemy, and peacefully execrated, despised, and rejected by the Society of Friends. Roundhead became a nickname among us, just as Longhead was one during the Scythians centuries before, and as Copperhead became one among the Americans centuries afterwards. A French historian informs us that the Carlovingian dynasty withered beneath the scorching attack of nicknames given to the kings—the fat, the bald, the simple, and so on. The bitter "Volpone" did havoc in its time, as did likewise the "Doctor" (Addington), so dubbed by Sheridan. Still, the happiest hit of all has been made in our own day. The Adullamites will never forgive Mr. Bright, nor will history forget him. The Cave will be a sanctuary when hereditary ratters glory in their appellation. There is no obscurity or insipidity about this name at all events. Again, Trimmers and Alarmists proclaim their mission on the housetops. And who would not turn to Bernal Osborne and Darby Griffith when asked to look at the head and front of the Quidnuncs? Fifty-five years ago there was a party of some half a dozen known as the "Saints." As a party they are extinct, but one lineal and degenerate representative lives in the person of Mr. Whalley—"Saint" Whalley, of Peterborough. More ephemeral and valueless are the names of the Tea-room party and the Peacock's Tail.

The more memorable names have had a chequered history. They have been worn like the garments of a previous generation, and when the wearer was changed in feeling, in sentiment, and in aspiration. They have been borrowed by those destitute of every principle that first ennobled the party. In being

adopted to give colour to principles utterly foreign, or to cover a multitude of political sins, they have suffered from varnish and tarnish, until their very fathers would not know them. Toryism, as a formal creed, is long since extinct, yet the vague profession of it is an heirloom where great families abound. The spirit it embodied still pervades many communities, and it must always be more or less diffused. From Cavalier to Conservative, it has found a name, but none so genial or attractive as Tory. In no commendable sense, however, could Tory now be revived. Divine right, with a new reading, could only mean the right divine and supremacy of the taxpaying householders; while passive obedience referred to the complacent and compliant subserviency of Government. But there is no mistaking such a name as Radical. It has all the merit and disadvantage of being downright, for it points as sternly as did the old phrase of root and branch. The objection to Liberal and Conservative is that they affirm too much. It is their weakness, that on the slightest deviation from their obvious profession, there is room for merciless twitting and grievous charges of inconsistency. The Conservatives are keenly alive to this, and some of them are striving to put Constitutional in the place of Conservative, thereby confessing, at last, that a thing may be Constitutional without being Conservative.

TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.

THE University of Dublin has always been fortunate in its defenders. Attacked on many occasions, it has rarely acknowledged defeat, and, as far as vehemence of counter-assertion could operate successfully, has won several rather discreditable triumphs. In former days, Dr. Duigenan, the vituperator of Burke and Grattan, was the champion whose brazen effrontery shielded old Trinity. In later times it was befriended by the impetuous verbiage of Shaw, the cunning rhetoric of Napier, and the deafening oratory of Whiteside. The mantle of Duigenan has now fallen upon Mr. Chatterton, who fitly sustains the somewhat equivocal reputation of "the College of the Holy and Undivided Trinity near Dublin." There is nothing like a direct negative for meeting unpleasant arguments in Parliament, especially towards the end of the session. A polite assembly will always be staggered, if not convinced, by a good downright contradiction, and Mr. Attorney-General Chatterton seems fully alive to the merits of this species of dialectics. Trinity College, said Mr. Fawcett, is rich. Mr. Chatterton says it is not. Its net revenues amount—so says her Majesty's Irish Attorney-General—"to £31,369. 19s. 8d., a sum very little exceeding that—£30,000—derived annually from the Consolidated Fund, exclusively for the support of the Roman Catholic College of Maynooth." It is not worth while to expose the absurdity of comparing the income of Trinity College with that of Maynooth, especially as Mr. Chatterton, finding it necessary to "hedge" a little, afterwards expands his minimum to the sum of £53,000. There is, we are often told, an intimate connection between the Irish Church and its University, and the latter has probably adopted from the former that skilful, but not over honest, method of calculation, by which a gross revenue is reduced by one-half to form the net. It is likely enough that, in this way, the difference between Mr. Fawcett's estimate of £90,000 and Mr. Chatterton's estimate of £53,000 may be explained. But at all events the Provost and Fellows of Trinity cannot complain of poverty. Only the other day, a living worth £732 (gross) per annum, or £481 (net), exclusively of residence, was refused by every one of the Fellows in succession, and was, in consequence, bestowed on an extern. The number of undergraduates in the last year was 1,218, and the fees paid by them were more than £20,000, exclusively of the entrance and degree fees, and without counting the rents paid for chambers and the fines for minor irregularities.

The livings directly in the gift of the Provost and Fellows are worth upwards of £18,000 a year, and there are other livings, worth £4,900 a year, to which Fellows must be appointed if they choose to accept them. These emoluments have not been reckoned among the endowments proper of Trinity College, which consist of enormous landed estates held by tenants on leases, renewable for ever on payment of fines. But the net revenues, at the amount insisted on by Mr. Chatterton, namely, £53,867, seem rather large, considering the work done for the money. The undergraduates, during the last academic year, were 1,218 in number, and consequently their undergraduate training and tuition, without counting the expense of lodging or board, cost £44 per head. Of this number of students less than one-half were non-resident, and derived from this joint outlay of their parents and the State no benefits other than those arising from their attendance at the Term examinations.

The teaching body of the College is extensive. Besides the Provost and seven Senior and twenty-six Junior Fellows, there are six Professors whose average income is much over £700 per annum. There are, accordingly, forty highly paid teachers, exclusively of a dozen other minor Professors, to 1,218 pupils. That is to say, there is one teacher to every forty-four students, and of these forty-four, one half only see their teachers twice or three times in the year. The liberality of Trinity College is praised by Mr. Chatterton. "Men of any religious denomination (he observed), whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, Turk, Jew, or Infidel, have a perfect right to go up to Trinity College and enter there, matriculate and be examined, just as freely as at the University of Edinburgh." Mr. Chatterton has no doubt special knowledge of the Turkism, Judaism, and Infidelity, of his own and the Scotch University, but he will hardly venture to produce an instance of either a Turk, Jew, or Infidel, obtaining any one of the many rewards at the disposal of Trinity College. A few trifling prizes and offices, such as the Non-Foundation Scholarships, the Sizarships and Studentships, and the ill-paid Lectureships in Modern Languages and in Political Economy, are, indeed, open to persons who may dissent from the State religion; but the great prizes, such as Fellowships, the Erasmus Smith Professorships, and the Regius Professorships of Greek, are all strictly confined to Protestants. No Roman Catholic, despite the vaunted impartiality of the governing body, holds a single professorial chair in Trinity College, either of mathematics, philosophy (natural or experimental), history, or law. A Mohammedan teaches Arabic at a stipend of £100 per annum, and a Roman Catholic barrister lectures on political economy for a similar stipend, paid, however, not from the College funds, but from a gift of Archbishop Whately. This is the extent to which the professorships are "open to persons of every denomination." The exclusive and narrow spirit of the Dublin University is, of course, such as might be expected to result from the very nature of its foundation. It was established on the site of a Roman Catholic priory, endowed with lands conquered from Roman Catholic chieftains, and enriched from time to time by grants from Protestant monarchs, who vainly strove to impose on the vanquished race a religious as well as a civil yoke. An institution so founded and so maintained could never be popular in Ireland among Roman Catholics. And many Protestants have condemned the institution as having a tendency towards encouraging the prejudices and animosities which divide the Irish people. The Orange proclivities of its students, shown a few years ago in the riotous processions round the statue of William III., and still denoted by the Kentish fire at commencements, are proofs that the teaching of the University has not succeeded in inculcating the principles of religious toleration. The "flat Puritanism" of Trinity, which, in the seventeenth century, was rebuked by Archbishop Abbot, and the illiberality which, in the eighteenth, excited the opposition of Swift, are in the nineteenth century still prevalent in the Dublin college. The mean and slovenly chapel, with its soiled walls and stained and dirty window-blinds, indicates the kind of religion which is there favoured. The departure of the organist and singers before the service is half over, the careless attitude of the loungers, the want of reverence at the communion-table, all testify the parsimony and Puritanism of the Fellows of Trinity. And the same niggardliness which has made the chapel a disgrace is practised towards the library staff. The library itself is a noble building, not built by the board, and the collection of books is the finest in Ireland. The manuscripts are valuable and rare. Dr. Todd is the librarian, and he devoted much time to vain endeavours to perfect the library arrangements and provide a proper catalogue of the books. His stipend for this office is about £50 per annum, but then it must be remembered, he is a rich senior fellow, and his librarian duties are nominal. In fact, all his library work has been a labour of love, which received an ill return from his brother fellows, who, when it was lately rumoured that he was to be Provost, signed a round-robin, declaring they would not have Dr. Todd to rule over them. The real librarian, who does the work, and is constantly in attendance from 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. each day, is styled "the Senior Assistant Librarian," and his remuneration is only £150 or £160 per annum, less, in fact, than the wages of a second-rate bank clerk. There is also a "Junior Assistant Librarian," at a similarly small stipend, who ekes out a scanty subsistence by teaching pupils during library hours! It is needless to add that the sums absolutely necessary to keep the fabric from decay and the books from destruction are doled out with a niggard hand by the members of the Senior Board, who, with one or two exceptions, grudge every penny laid out on the library.

The Government, it is said, are about to grant a charter to

the Catholic University, in order to meet the wishes of the great majority of the Irish population. But they refuse to "open" Trinity College, so as to enable Roman Catholics to share the great prizes for learning which have been provided by the State out of the property of Ireland. Legislation, conducted in this half-hearted, temporizing, unprincipled spirit, may prolong the Ministerial term of office, but will never satisfy the wants of Ireland, which requires, in its present most critical position, the most liberal and generous treatment. The endowments and wealth of Trinity College are far more than what is necessary for the university training of the few members of the Established Church who resort to it for religious instruction. A fraction of its revenues would suffice for its Divinity school. The great bulk of its revenues and offices should be free to Roman Catholics and Dissenters to enjoy, if they can win them. The library should be the property of the nation and not of a sect. The "governing body" of the University should no longer consist of the Provost and seven Senior Fellows, whose interest it is to spend as little as possible on anything or anybody except themselves, but should include the Junior Fellows and the members of the Senate who now are powerless to effect reforms. If the members of the Senate of the Queen's University and of the projected Catholic University were joined with the Senate of Trinity, so as to form one supreme governing body for all the universities in Ireland, there would be one great step gained towards the abolition of sectarian ascendancy and towards true religious equality. Perhaps some comprehensive scheme of university reform for Ireland will be prepared by the Irish Liberal members and proposed in the coming Parliament of 1868.

THE MOORS.

THE long, dreary working year is drawing to its close. Our ordinary occupations are about to be forgotten for awhile. Portmanteaus take the place of ledgers, briefs are laid aside for gun-cases, and London disperses itself over its accustomed autumn haunts. Already there is something sharp and bracing about the morning air, suggestive of the heather and the stubble, producing an elasticity of step and lightness of heart not known at other seasons of the year. "Recreation is a second creation when weariness hath annihilated one's spirits," said good old Thomas Fuller; and he added, "but, above all, shooting is a noble recreation, and an half liberall art." Being, then, a "liberall" art, it has to be liberally paid for. Are there not stories of enthusiastic parties of sportsmen going north, after renting from some canny laird illimitable acres of shooting, at a rent more than that of the sheep-farmers on the ground, and coming home again sadder but wiser men, with some twelve brace of grouse for their season's sport? So long as men will rent ground, they never saw they must be content to put up with the consequences. This year almost every moor seems to have suffered more or less from the disease, and the bags generally will be very light. Symptoms of the disease have shown themselves for the last two seasons, and it is probable that the present epidemic will be quite as severe as that which attacked the grouse some years ago. Still, such is the charm of grouse-shooting, many a moor will have its party of sportsmen instead of the couple of years' rest needful to it; while those moors that have fortunately escaped will be shot harder than ever. Where the birds are thin, driving should be especially avoided from the great number of birds that go away wounded, to die, under that barbarous system. Nothing is more distressing to a man really fond of sport than losing wounded game; and even the best shot, and the one most careful in choosing the outside birds of a pack driven over him, is unable to avoid wounding many besides those fired at.

What can be more delightful to the hard-worked man than those days on the broad moorlands of the far north? The little solitary shooting-box standing on the bare hill-side—before it, the burn tumbling over rocks and rushing over shallows with an ever varying music. The arm-chair is brought out, and the morning cigar smoked, while the water ouzel hunts for his prey, apparently running along the bottom of the burn in a manner subversive of all philosophic ideas of specific gravity. All along the hill-side the cock grouse are crowing and pluming themselves as they stand on the thick tufts of heather, not knowing how shorter and shorter dwindles that cigar, the dropping of whose ashes represents the duration of their lives. Then the pointers are unloosed to hunt the hills where water is scarce, and where setters would consequently soon be beaten. The setters shall be kept for the moss in the afternoon. Eager, wide-ranging, with every nerve

strained to a tension, the dogs range right and left, across and back again. Now the one, rigid as he sniffs the game right before him, drawn back upon his haunches lest by chance the birds should be alarmed, and trembling with excitement, waits the approach of the guns. As steady, his head turned towards the happy finder of the game, the backing dog watches the result. Something in his countenance shows that he is critically studying the sportsmen. Could he speak, he would say, "Steady, gentlemen, steady; the first shot or two of the season is rather nervous work—walk quietly up to the birds, and pray let them get well away before you fire." He is an old dog, and knows how much the success of the day's shooting depends on the first few shots. The covey flushed, and the birds dropped without a struggle; every muscle of the dogs is relaxed, and as they lie while the guns are being reloaded they look round for a word of praise or encouragement. Away again they range over the rolling hill-sides, while the scared plovers, circling, whistle above them. They are drawing to the top of the hill, where masses of bare granite rock glitter like metal in the sunshine. It is a hard pull up the steep. A grand old black-cock, his plumage shining like velvet, twists between the rocks, going away unscathed, for his vacation is not yet over. Two or three blue mountain hares are picked up, and as the farm-stead with its patch of corn is reached, a small covey of tiny partridges rise before the dogs, and a brown hare is added to the bag. How clear and springy is the heather to walk on! Surely, he who can range the broad moors will never descend to the turnips, fallows, fences, and narrow bonnds of the south! And yet there is much to be said in favour of the partridges. But there is the gillie beside the rocks with the luncheon and the setters. The bottles of Bass are cooling in the spring, grateful to the throat after the long walk under the August sun. The game lies spread out on the heather; pipes are lit; the merits of the dogs, the size of the birds, and the peculiar circumstances attending each shot, are discussed in dreamy ease. Away range the setters again, while with sorrowful eyes, and heads turned regretfully towards the sportsmen, the pointers are led off to their kennel. On the moss many a solitary old grouse is picked up, with now and then a snipe, perchance a duck, from some rushy boghole; and as the sun sinks all find themselves back at the lodge deliciously tired. Dinner over the events of the day are discussed. The man is fortunate who cannot be reproached for having fired at his neighbour's bird, or for having shot some wretched cheeper. Let such squabbles be left to the poulterers who yearly shoot for Leadenhall market, and who publish the contents of their game-bags, not always with scrupulous accuracy, in the sporting papers.

There is no time on the moors more enjoyable than the latter end of September. The birds are all full grown, and in such magnificent plumage that they are scarcely recognisable as brothers and sisters of those shot at the beginning of the season. In September and October there is no slaughter of the innocents; no pair of breech-loaders to each man working away until the barrels are hot at half-fledged nestlings that could be knocked down with a stick. By that time the grouse are strong and wild. Seldom do they rise under thirty yards, and their flight is rapid and powerful. Good dogs, good shooting, and good walking are wanted to make a bag. The sun, too, is less powerful, and the weather generally finer. Wider beats are taken, and there is a greater sense of freedom than when the whole day's sport lies within half a mile of the lodge. After all, late or early, on the northern moors is to be found the poetry of shooting. The wide expanse of hill and mountain, the comparative solitude, even the dark, sombre tints of bog and heather, are a relief after the hurry, struggle, and glitter of town life. Some home luxuries are, or ought to be, left behind. The post comes but twice a week. No doctor is to be found within miles—enough alone to show that the bounds of civilization are passed. But what shall be said of the grouse themselves when, after due time, they appear upon the table? Whether hot, brown, and rich at the dinner; in a salmi at the breakfast; or cold at luncheon on the hill side, what bird can compare with them? No wonder, then, that half the world of London is preparing to go north, regardless of grouse disease, high rents, and all the counter-attractions of the Continent.

TWOPENCE MORE.

BESIDES a strong conviction of the inefficiency of our military institutions, and a vague idea of the insufficiency of the remedies proposed for so deplorable a state of things, it may be doubted whether the general reader has realized much from the discussion which has been carried on of late regarding the

army. The current of public opinion, diverted into a thousand petty channels, too often dribbles impotently round obstructions, which, under other conditions, it might sweep away; and the immediate difficulty of recruiting the ranks seems almost lost sight of amid the numerous possibilities of military reform. It may not, therefore, be entirely out of place if in the present article we propose to recall our most pressing military deficiency, and attempt to estimate the probable effect of that increase of the soldiers pay, which has been made to remedy such deficiency.

In peace time, the British army (which may be taken at 185,000 rank and file) requires an annual supply of about 17,000 recruits; and Lord Hartington declared the annual average deficiency (for the four years ending with 1865) to have been 4,000 men. That this deficiency was year by year increasing, and might soon be expected to assume a dangerous if not irreparable aspect was the proximate cause of the appointment of the Recruiting Commission. But in addition, during the next three years, the numbers of men whose limited service expires will reach nearly 58,000! The contingency of a very serious loss to the ranks, in conjunction with the increasing unpopularity of military service among the masses of the population, might reasonably cause anxiety as to the future of the army. Nor in addition should it be forgotten that, since the Indian mutiny, the standard height for recruits has been one inch (and for some short time two inches) lower than it ever was previously in peace time—excepting when reserve or second battalions were being raised. Twopence a day added to the pay of the soldier, is the cure prescribed for this threatened imminent failure in providing for the defence of the nation, or, in other words, is the increased premium deemed sufficient for insuring our continued national existence. Fully appreciating as we do that this increase is a step in the right direction, it is, we think, a question worthy of more consideration than it has hitherto met with, whether such an increase is likely to act in as complete a manner as the circumstances of the case demand.

Although it is evident to all that the unemployed labour of the country is averse to listening to the blandishments of Sergeant Kite, it is to be feared that so broad a statement of the evil scarcely admits of any correct judgment on the efficacy of the remedy proposed. Experience alone can supply an infallible test. The more, however, we are able to localize the seat of disease, the less likely it is that error will arise in an estimate of the curative treatment. And under a voluntary system of service it seems by no means a difficult matter to define, with some degree of exactness, the locality where the greatest disinclination for military service exists. If, for example, an analysis of the nationalities of the rank and file of the army be made, we shall find that, having regard to the respective populations, the number of Englishmen in the ranks shows a very serious deficiency. We arrive by this means at once to the knowledge that England is the field which yields the least return to recruiting operations. In round numbers if England contributed the same proportion of her population as Ireland does, we should have 30,000 more men in the ranks. This deficient supply of Englishmen will be found to be compensated almost entirely by Irishmen; for though Scotland contributes rather more than her share of recruits, that excess is numerically small. In time of peace, Ireland (though actually contributing more) is supposed to supply one-third of the whole number of recruits from a population which may be roughly estimated at one-fourth of that of the United Kingdom. And one effect of this perpetual fishing, as it were, of the stream is, that when in war time a pressure takes place, the proportion of Irish recruits to the whole number immediately diminishes. In the period including the Crimean war and the Indian mutiny, for example, she gave two only out of every seven men; in years of peace previously she supplied two out of every five men. Again, in 1863 she contributed 374 per 1,000 recruits; in 1864 the proportion fell to 320 per 1,000. Mr. Horsman, in a speech delivered at Stroud, not long ago, told us that famine and emigration had acted disastrously in Ireland as a recruiting field. And this, no doubt, is true; though a country which still contains so large a surplus of unskilled labour should scarcely be the one where a difficulty in finding recruits is experienced. It is, perhaps, possible that a larger number of recruits might have been procured in Ireland if such a course of proceeding had been deemed advisable. Freemasonry, said De Quincey, was composed of two parts, the first *forking out*; the second, and more pleasant part, being *brandy*. Past events do not, perhaps, induce us to believe that similarly Fenianism is merely made up of *forking out* and *whisky*; and it might, therefore, be unwise to expose the ties of military discipline to a greater strain than that which they have no doubt sustained of late

years. But whether we can afford to regard Fenianism in the army as a bugbear or not, it is to be doubted whether any great increase of men can be counted on from Ireland.

In times of war, during the period 1853-59, a period which comprised both the Crimean war and the Indian mutiny, the proportion from Ireland fell, as above stated, as low as two in seven recruits. In the same period Scotland supplied one in seven recruits, whereas formerly she gave us one in six. For times of emergency, then, it appears that neither Scotland nor Ireland possesses latent available recruiting forces, and in England alone resides the material to be acted on. Times indeed are changed since the commencement of the present century, when a single Scotch island contributed an immense number of officers, and 10,000 rank and file to supply the waste of the Peninsular war! The problem of recruiting our army would, therefore, seem to resolve itself almost into the simple question of, whether the twopence which has been added to the soldier's pay will tempt a sufficient number of Englishmen to enter the ranks? Professor Leone Levi's work on the "Wages and Earnings of the Working Classes" may perhaps assist us in coming to some approximate conclusion on this head. We shall find it stated, there, that the average weekly earnings of a working man in England amount to 22s. 6d., while the weekly wage of an agricultural labourer is 13s. A mean of these two wages will be 17s. 9d. per week; and if we compare 14s., which is the mean wage of the British soldier, with this sum, we are in a position to judge with some degree of accuracy of the probability of inducing Englishmen to enter the ranks as a profession. To forfeit nearly four shillings a week, to forego his civil rights and place himself under military discipline; to suffer all but social ostracism, and risk his life in every variety of pestilential climate are the rewards which England offers her private soldier! Arrangements such as these we presume are what Mr. Lowe would comprehend in such phrases as "the happiness of the people at large," and "the keeping a just balance of classes." That the additional 2d. per diem which has been added to the soldier's pay will enable the authorities to procure a certain number of men is perhaps to be expected. But whether this increase of pay will attract that respectable class which might be willing to enlist, and which exists without doubt in the masses of the population, is a matter of grave uncertainty. That the remedy for a deficiency of recruits is to some extent a question of money, cannot of course be denied; for in proportion as free action in civil life contains the chances of self elevation, so must the price paid for the soldier's services increase. But it is scarcely possible that any money expenditure, however large, could of itself cause the restraints of a military system (fast becoming obsolete) to be regarded otherwise than with extreme distaste by the majority of the working classes. Those numberless burdens which press heavily on the British soldier in peace time, but which are unnecessary to a healthy system of martial rule, and which in the field are inevitably cast aside—are simply lumber encumbering the decks of the ship of State. Such, on the approach of a storm, must be thrown overboard. The follies and extravagances which may in prosperous times be indulged in with comparative impunity, need under other conditions a restraining hand; while the bigotry and pedantry which makes military life in the ranks unpopular, must yield to the necessity of obtaining men somewhat above the proletariat class, and fit both physically and morally for the defence of the nation.

SEASIDE MORALITIES.

If God made the country and man made the town, it follows that the seaside must have been the work of a personage whom nowadays we clothe in discreet metaphor before leading him into society. But we need no *a priori* arguments to prove the parentage of watering-places. Only the father of all evil could have gathered together the waifs and strays of humanity and human customs to build such nests of graceful abominations. Alexander Smith, who always loved the sea, bitterly complains that only when it approaches land does it become foul and turbid; for poets are but indifferent reasoners on questions of sewage, and are apt to overlook the mutual accommodation principle on which nature works. Who more than the sick man should seek pure air? and if a nation must wash its dirty linen, why should it not instinctively fly to the sea? Why should we wonder at the atmosphere which dwells over most watering-places—an atmosphere tainted by reminiscences of the stale tobacco-smoke of the Haymarket? The typical inhabitant of St. John's Wood is a secretive animal who invariably carries with him a portion of his

native air. He arises in the morning, takes with him his household gods—which are too often the shabbiest and poorest of painted divinities—and when he pitches his tent in the evening he finds himself surrounded by that atmosphere out of which he cannot live. As Birnam Wood went to Dun-sinane, so St. John's Wood arrives at Brighton, or Margate, or Ramsgate, as the case may be. We recognise the old sad faces as we walk through the transported town. There are the same rose-red cheeks, the same white neck that gleams with its corpse-like bismuth brilliancy, the same frizzled yellow hair in suspicious abundance, the same smart boots, smart dress, profuse jewellery, and bonnet consisting of one or two leaves (which might appropriately have been fig-leaves) laid on a bit of white silk or muslin. We meet the same mysterious captains who wear a big beard, drive a pony-chaise, and have a liking for strong language, billiards, and odd sovereigns. The inevitable Jew, with his impenetrable eyes, white face, and oily hair, walks past, ogling those broods of ancient chickens whom their mother has been unable to dispose of in the London market. Followed by half a dozen cavaliers, the little woman with the tight habit and pert hat—she with the big eyes and slightly upturned nose—rides along, and low whispers and sly peeps attend her rapid progress. In fact, we are not in Brighton at all, but in that part of London which is distinguished by an inscrutable gentility which comes and goes we know not whence nor whither.

Doubtless there are many reasons why these incomprehensible people should flock to and fill our watering-places; but one of the chief of these is the landladies. A Brighton or Hastings landlady is a strange being. She never saw a marriage certificate. She would undertake to deny the existence of such a thing. She is very polite, and will call any person Mrs. Smith, or Mrs. Thompson, when requested to do so. She has great faith in fraternal affection, and always welcomes brothers who bring their sisters down to the sea-side for a few weeks. She is very charitable; and when Miss Leicester inquires for letters under the name of Stubbs, she will innocently ask the young lady whether her name is Miss Leicester-Stubbs or Stubbs-Leicester. She is very respectful and alert, and never sees anything she should not see, nor overhears expressions unfit for an elderly lady's ears. For these attentions, it is true, she charges a high price; but somehow the vague people, who flit thither and back again, as noiselessly as if they had the woollen wings of the night-jar, never grumble. They have been known, in a very paroxysm of base ingratitude, to essay an escape from payment; though such efforts are, as they ought to be, generally futile. The conduct of these lodgers is always irreproachable. If they have a weakness, it is for a little brandy before breakfast; but that custom is becoming so universal that even the most ancient of landladies is getting used to it. Those sisters who are so much indebted to the kindness of their brothers dress brilliantly, and are particular to appear at the proper time for the fashionable promenade. A few years ago they were looked at and regarded with apparent dislike by the ordinary members of the promenade—the mothers and daughters resident in the watering-place, who were supposed to hold the new-comers in contempt because they only took lodgings by the week. But nowadays it requires the keenest and most critical eye to detect the difference between the dress and appearance of those people who take their lodgings by the week and that of their more fortunate sisters who are down for the season. The oddest mistakes have been the consequence of the removal of this difference in costume, for which indeed the season people are wholly to blame. It was an unworthy envy which prompted them to encroach upon those external decorations of face, figure, and dress which clearly belonged to the casual visitors. The wandering Arabs from St. John's Wood had a distinct and incontrovertible right to the badge of their tribe; and to infringe this right was to injure them without doing any apparent good to their despoilers.

We hear constantly that the old condition of things must be reinstated; but how? We should be sorry to see any pacific compromise between the parties. To appeal to the police would be too absurd, even if police regulations were not so notoriously defective as they are known to be in such places as Brighton, where those who walk upon the sands when the sun goes down find themselves beyond the jurisdiction of the station-house. To make a constable an arbiter of dress; to appeal to X 13 for protection against rouged cheek-bones; or to ask the law to lengthen the backs of bonnets would be ridiculous, even if the complainants were not in danger of a counter-charge on the same score. Yet it is high time something should be done to curb St. John's Wood when it thus takes possession of a

watering-place, or at least to draw a distinction between its natives and the ordinary lady visitors to the coast. The latter, it must be remembered, have a serious business on hand which demands all the power of their mind, and it is wholly unfair that they should be distracted by envious cares. If one considers the expense a mother suffers in order to take her daughters in decent style to balls, flower-shows, and operas; and if one reflects on the absolutely desperate position in which she is placed when, at the end of the season, she has to withdraw her lovely wares without the reserve price having been even approached in any one instance, one must see the forlorn avidity with which she seeks her last chances by the seaside. How many possibilities there are of the merchandise being depreciated! How few complexions, after having borne the violet powder of an entire season, have the necessary reaction with which to meet the rough sea-breezes. Then the men are jaded and worn with being long pursued. They are as wild as partridges at the end of January. They are as wary as an old salmon with half a dozen hooks in his jaw. They know the relentless eagerness of the husband-fishers, now that the season for the sport is just going. They know that they have only to

"Talk six times with the same single lady,
And they may get the wedding dresses ready."

We cannot conceive a position more painful and harassing than that of the typical mother of whom we have spoken; and to think that, with these grave issues hanging in the balance, the rouge of Belgravia should come into open and unblushing competition with the rouge of Pimlico is surely too bad. If matters go on in this way, it is to be feared that Belgravia must quit the field entirely and choose some other ground for practising its pet amusement. The graceful mermaids whom John Leech used to draw will disappear from the long chalk cliffs, if they ever were to be found there; and in place of pretty eyes and streaming hair, our social draughtsman must draw such a picture of sunken orbs and artificially-prepared features as shall warn the wandering Ulysses away from that unhappy shore. Then shall the fast betting man rejoice, and the Houndsditch receiver appear in grand style. A stripe of Cremorne will lie along our seaboard, as it does at the present day to no inconsiderable extent, and will greatly diminish the number of distinguished foreigners who would otherwise have come on to London. Meanwhile the people who are going down to the watering-places in a few weeks in order to further the great end of their being should fortify their mind by some previous experiences. They should inoculate themselves with looking at certain phases of life which they are sure to find presented there in gross forms. We give this counsel because we suppose it is too late in the day to speak of any protest in the way of an alteration in dress and manner. If the value of a thing is to be measured by what it will fetch, the graces borrowed from Aspasia by the modest women of England must be looked at from a commercial point of view, and the study of these fascinations at the sea-side may be so successful in the end that it is not without hesitation we direct exceptional attention to them.

LETTER-WRITERS.

THE Conservative press in the course of those discussions which preceded the establishment of the penny postage drew largely upon that gift of prophesy which seems to be its great weapon of defence against the assaults of improving change. In every movement, from a Liberal Reform Bill down to an order for the alteration of the buttons on a soldier's jacket, the dismal future is trotted out before the admiring and terrified gaze of country electors, that they may see the ruin which "change for the sake of change" is about to effect, and by their votes save the constitution. The amount of misery that was to result from the carrying of letters at a penny a piece was something too horrible for contemplation. A million and a half of revenue was to be sacrificed "upon the ridiculous presumption of a wonderful increase of correspondence," the country was to be endangered and the Crown itself jeopardized. It is unnecessary to say that this prophecy, with that ill luck which seems to attend upon all such utterances, in even the wide range comprehended between the writings of Dr. Cumming and hieroglyphics of Zadkiel, has been in no particular borne out by events. However, the penny postage did work a change which might have been foretold by a prophet possessing more common sense than seems to have fallen to the lot of the authorities to whom we have referred. This change, which one hesitates to describe as a disadvantage or as a benefit, was the decline and almost complete suppression of

the art of letter-writing. Letters are still written, but the art is gone. A man writes now as if he valued his production at the penny which carries it. He scribbles what he has got to say in the fewest possible words and frequently with an illegibility which is the very essence of carelessness, and the rest he leaves to fate, the postman, and his correspondent's capacity of deciphering. In "the good old times," however, as our Conservative friends would call them, when postal communications had all the respectability which a shilling could give, the transmission or receipt of a letter was an epoch in the life of the commoner sort of person and a matter of considerable moment even with a Conservative. The writer laboured under the conviction that the work upon which he was engaged was one of no ordinary character. He knew—unless he was unhappy enough to be writing to the lady of his affections—that his production might be subjected to the criticism of a whole breakfast-table, and he was by no means certain that it might not even outlive him, immortalized in print. He had the letters of Lady Mary Montague, Lord Chesterfield, Sir Charles Grandison, and Pamela, and he was forced from the very circumstances in which he found himself, to aim at something like the superiority which distinguished those epistles. He often forgot, however, as some of his descendants occasionally do even now, that some small degree of thought was not without its influence upon writing, and he sought not inspiration, but nice expressions wherever he could get them, but he especially pinned his faith to those models of letter-writing "which were fitted to all capacities, in the most smooth and obliging style, and not only divulged the art of "true pointing and other things useful," but taught the inquirer "how properly to entitle, subscribe, or direct, a letter to any person of what quality soever." These letter-writers had not degenerated into the servants' companions that they have since become. The universality which they aimed at required that Jeames should not be quite unnoticed, but the single epistle suitable to his station which we found in one of these old books is not of a kind that the modern gentleman's gentleman would care about writing, or could well send with impunity. "The serving man" writes to his master that "by reason of your long absence from your habitation I am in hopes you will pardon my boldness in undertaking to write to you to let you understand that your family is in good health, and that your affairs go on very prosperously, so that nothing we can wish is wanting but your return." The writer, however, is careful to add that "he does not undertake to hasten his master to despatch his affairs, but will submit to what discretion he shall see convenient." We are not informed what became of the serving man who felt so deep an interest in his master's welfare, and we turn from him to those young gentlemen and women who had provided for them "choice letters" after the newest and most modish way of compiling or inditing, exceeding pleasant and profitable.

The young gentleman of the present day who speaks to his father as "governor," and of him as "the relieving officer" who has to stump up for toggerly, if he ever has recourse to an old "letter-writer" will congratulate himself that he is relieved from the filial epistles of one hundred and fifty years ago. The young gentleman of the past, whatever his politeness may have been, does not, to judge from his correspondence, appear to have been encumbered with over-much sincerity. When we see him writing "a letter of entreaty" to his ever honoured father, sending the letter "as a humble suitor on my behalf, though I must confess no merit in me did not your tender affections plead my cause, could ever have deserved the least part of what I have received, to entreat you to procure me those necessary cloths and books, of which, being in need thereof, I gave you an account the last time I had the happiness to lay myself at your feet and offer you my tribute of duty and thankfulness, which, indeed, is all the poor return my tender years are as yet able to make for the many favours of love that you have from time to time heaped upon me," one is inclined, if only from the vagueness with which the young gentleman expresses himself, to look upon him as an unmitigated humbug, of whom no good can come. Our opinion of him is in no way changed by a subsequent epistle, in which we find him speaking of himself "as a beggar who, having often received alms, is yet emboldened by necessity to intrude upon the charity and good nature of the hospitable donor," and we have little doubt that we are following his subsequent fortunes in many other portions of the correspondence. We find him writing begging pardon for a fault, and expecting forgiveness through "the experience of the innate goodness and clemency, the commiseration and fatherly compassion" of the person who on the next page addresses him as "Ungracious son, and remains, "as I have reason, your much offended father." He offends his other relations, especially his "loving and careful

uncle." His friend and schoolfellow, in a letter "from one scholar to another complaining of too long absence," writes him that he "wonders why he delays the restoration of his friend's happiness by so long absenting himself from school," and gets such a reply as we should imagine the model son to write. He tells "Honest John" that his "promise of a speedy return was rashly done, seeing in the place where I now am I am altogether under the jurisdiction of my friends and relations who will not suffer me to leave them unless I, contrary to the rules of obedience, civility, and good manners, should come away unknown to them, which would altogether unbecome the profession of a scholar, not but that I would be willingly at my studies." Notwithstanding his devotion to his lessons, however, when he gets back he desires to be once more under the jurisdiction of his friends, if we are to form any conclusion from the letter in which his father lets him understand "that it is my pleasure that you continue where you are, nay, by your obedience and by the authority of a father I command it, and farther conjure you that you be no ways negligent in making due progress in your learning." We discern very little improvement in our hero as he advances towards maturity. He is either asking pardon from a lady for a fault, begging her to "consider, madam, that the punishment I inflict upon myself for my having offended so much goodness is not the least, although what I did was rather through the fierce emotion of an unruly passion than any proceeding from my free will; so that if the thing be rightly stated, it was rather my misfortune than my fault;" or he goes abroad, writes letters "from one who is travelling to see the rarities and magnificences of other countries," and marries for her money a lady who shortly afterwards dies. This at least we infer from "a letter to a young man on the death of an old wife," being one of those "consolatory letters which are to be used when the grief is feigned or the cause inconsiderable, and may indifferently apply to either sex." He appears to get rid of his money rapidly, for we find him endeavouring "to borrow money from another without any claim but assurance," and receiving a reply which, as a model letter of refusal, we commend to the indignant shopman or servant-girl whom anybody has been audacious enough to ask for the loan of fifty guineas.

"SIR,—While I was out of town I find you did me the favour of inquiring two or three times for me, and among my letters I find one from you desiring the loan of fifty guineas. You must certainly have mistaken me or yourself very much to think that we were enough known to each other for such a transaction. I was twice in your company; I was delighted with your conversation, and you seemed as much pleased with mine. Should I answer the demands of every new acquaintance I should soon want power to oblige my old friends and even to serve myself. Surely, sir, a gentleman of your merit cannot be so little beloved as to be forced to seek to new acquaintance and to have no better friend than one of yesterday. Be this as it may, it does not at all suit my convenience to comply with your request, and therefore I must beg you to excuse yours, &c."

After this snub, as might be expected, he gets into trouble and receives "a letter of consolation to one in prison," but upon his release he marries again, and the last seen of him is a letter to a wife on the death of a bad husband," in which the lady is congratulated "because he had the opportunity of making even with the world by spending all he had and making himself no richer when he went out of it than when he came into it." When we see in what the art of letter-writing resulted we can entertain very little sorrow at its departure. The letters of people in these days may be deficient in polish, and they may be wanting in fulness and legibility. It might be as well if greater regard were paid to the crossing of *t*'s and the dotting of *i*'s, and if some of that slovenliness which is a characteristic of the correspondence of the present day were avoided. Yet when we see what opportunities the prevailing tendency gives for the open and sincere expression of opinion, the inducement it affords to people to write as they would speak, and the strong opposition it offers to a string of puny nothings, he must admit that the penny postage stamp has brought us advantages which we never could have attained by "letter-writers."

RETREATS.

THE idea that the body is in some way the special adversary of the soul, and that to purify the one it is necessary to curb and mortify the other, has been the basis of certain phases of religion from all time. The votaries of asceticism have been always numerous, as the charm of feeling yourself more miserable and therefore better than your neighbours in this life, with a stronger guarantee for the life to come, is always potent. In the early Church, isolation was felt to be the easiest form which this course of self-discipline could take, as in our day total

abstinence is being continually preferred to moderation in alcoholic liquids. The desert soon swarmed with anchorites, whose spiritual pride Tennyson has embodied in a line—

"Who may be made a saint if I fail here,"

cries St. Simeon Stylites. The West adopted the theory of their Eastern brethren, with a modification which was derived from their more practical tendencies. In acknowledging the advantages to be gathered from separation from the world, they at the same time realized the weakness of individual isolation. This view was equally decisive of their own future, and of the future of their Church. In the one case the monk became a part of a political machine, and was the spokesman of mankind during the Middle Ages. In the other the anchorite degenerated into a fakir, and debased the body which revered his penance. How Roman Catholicism cherished learning, manufactured decretals, and annexed domains, to the time of the Reformation, lies within the region of historical commonplace. But the subject of its revival in our own Establishment, is one which is continually cropping up, and the variety of disguises which it assumes renders it an interesting and useful task to tear them away. One phase, indeed, of that spiritual domination has been quashed by the statute of mortmain, and we have no reason to fear the abdication of lay landholders. But to restore the ascendancy which was once exercised over the minds of men, is the aspiration and the labour of a chosen class in England. Their name is legion—High Churchmen, Tractarians, Ritualists; with different names, their objects are one. This school is characterized by a high æsthetic intelligence, antiquarian tastes and dress, and by what may be termed official arrogance. It is rare for them to overstep the bounds between eccentricity and buffoonery, though it must be confessed that the Benedictines of Norwich in the minds of many practical persons did so. In fact, as a rule, their claim to respect is that they are gentlemen, single-hearted and devoted; their drawback is that they are religious despots, and essentially retrograde. The Retreat is the newest improvement in the hands of this school. As everybody may not be acquainted with this last phase of discipline, we should inform our readers that it is a temporary occupation of some empty parsonage or other fit place, where a number of clergymen meet together for a fixed period of seclusion, under the presidency of some experienced priest, who acts as master of the ceremonies. Here the day is divided into a series of services, tempered with intervals for meals and recreation, and the whole forms a nucleus for laboured meditation and ecclesiastical gossip. It does not appear what becomes of the parishes whilst their pastors are going through this course of spiritual incubation, unless they are left to the care of wives. It will be seen that this movement is really an indulgence of the monastic hankering which a party in England has always felt, and the leading feature of which consists in the absolute exclusion of the laity. Yet on what grounds this exclusion rests is difficult to discover; for surely, if such retirement from the world, however temporary, is necessary for the perfecting of our spiritual life, the lay body, who, from the greater variety, and we may even add, the greater intensity of their occupations, are more embroiled with the world than their clerical brethren, have a more pressing need of such consolation. And though such occupations would necessarily make this course of proceeding hard of accomplishment, yet serious-minded men would make the sacrifice, especially as their loss would be small compared with the privation to which a parish is subjected in the absence of its head. The real answer to this objection is, that the question of Retreats rests entirely on the idea that the clergy are a body not only set apart, but elevated by the extraordinary powers inherent in their office; and this is the real mischief. The recruits in this cause are men of simple and inflammable natures, who having taken orders at the first possible opportunity, as they cannot gauge its responsibility, are the more alive to the sweets of power. The Rev. Simon Lavender has taken his degree with considerable *éclat*—that is to say, he has never failed in passing his examinations; he has learned the Articles as a child learns his alphabet; and he is aware that English is not the original language of the New Testament, though he cannot construe the whole of it. He completes his religious education by an earnest perusal of Pearson on the Creed, is ordained, and settles down to a country cure. If of an ardent temperament, he finds daily service more pleasant than daily chapel in his undergraduate days, as the rôle of leading tenor has greater attractions than mere singing in the chorus. The season for putting his theories into a bodily shape is now arrived, though how it is to be done presents some difficulties

of detail. His heart expands at the vision of vestments of many colours, and the distant waft of incense smells sweet in his nostrils. A picture of revived discipline floats before his eyes with the brightness of a mediæval painted window, and his views on the subject of penance haunt him with the persistency of a nightmare. What sight could be so elevating to his uneducated parishioners as that of the squire standing in a sheet, because he had kissed his housemaid or had used a strong expression to his butler after that second bottle of port! As might be expected, Simon is at this time ascetic in his tone, addicted to celibacy and prone to fasting. But alas! for consistency, the squire's daughter is fair, she teaches in the Sunday-school, believes in clerical infallibility, except on the subject of marriage, and has five thousand pounds. Simon apostatizes and marries. He relinquishes the idea once fondly cherished of seeing his father-in-law in the stocks, whilst he salves his conscience with the flattering notion that he exercises some imaginary restraint over the tongue of the village magnate, which, however, is not absolutely purged of the evil thing. The son-in-law gets a living, becomes a hardworking parson, and, if his wife is a wise woman, turns a deaf ear to his Retreating brethren. That this is a true, if not a flattering, sketch will be conceded by many readers. There are, indeed, in the rank and file bolder men who remain by their old standards and raise the old war-cry, unheeding or untouched by the softening influence of family ties. They become the leaders. Their voices are heard in Convocation, and they are to be met with in the purlieus of the Ecclesiastical Courts. The terror of Diocesans, the firebrands of clerical meetings—ever dissentient, ever turbulent—they are a nuisance to their friends, and present a standing apology for heterodoxy. From this sapient source must have sprung the idea of that Retreat on a large scale to be held at Lambeth, the Pan-Anglican Synod. This assembly had all the objectionable features of its sister Retreats. Unpractical, for of express purpose this synod was not to be assembled for the discussion of any new dogmas. Ostentatious, for the gathering together of a miscellany of Protestant bishops was to awe the Papacy, and to rally the unruly members of its own persuasion. Mischievous, for the leading divines were to come from the uttermost parts of the earth to hear the wisdom of our mitred Solomons, whilst their dioceses were to look after themselves as best they might. Narrow, for the laity were to have no voice in proceedings which, if they were to have any effect, would concern them in the most vital point. This want of common sense is the weak point of the High Church party. They would make Convocation a spiritual Parliament, with legislative and judicial functions; they would have the country surrender its present jurisdiction over spiritual matters; they are willing to lose the prestige, which at present attaches the Establishment to its supporters, from its happy mixture of temporal law with religious freedom. And what is their object? priestly domination. But they must have the endowments. Give them the chance to-morrow of self-government without tithes, and how virtuous their indignation would be. Suggest to them the voluntary system, and they would volley forth from their pulpits angry fulminations against scepticism and lay tyranny. Theirs indeed is—

"The fault of the Dutch
In giving too little and asking too much."

We hold that, in the present day, this is a fault of the most fatal character. No doubt the English Church has many enemies from without, and unless the clergy summon the main body of the faithful to their side, content to be leaders instead of prophets, they will hereafter find themselves alone in the field, whilst their followers are scattered to their own homes. As it is, the ecclesiastical world is like an army caught in a fog. Nobody knows the ground, and the dispositions of the enemy are equally unknown. Here and there a knot of men loom through the mist, gathered round some trusted officer, and we feel that such a remnant may still be saved when the onslaught is made on their wandering comrades. The trumpet of East Brent sounds defiantly in the distance, but the wise ones heed it not. Whether order can arise out of this confusion, or law be born from this anarchy, must depend on the lay element co-operating with the clergy. Retreats will not do it; and, for our parts, we could wish that they possessed the sole merit of keeping their votaries in permanent confinement.

The dramatic authors of France have memorialized the English Government, begging that the International Copyright Law may be so modified as to protect them from literary piracy. The request is not unreasonable, considering how largely our "dramatic authors" help themselves from French originals.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

FRANCE has just been passing through the elections for the Councils-General. No less than 464 out of the 600 elections were gained by the Government candidates; 21 fell to the share of the Opposition; and the remainder—amounting to 115—were neutral. Upon this the English papers, as usual, remark that the thing is a farce; that the Government can return whom they like, and that the people have really no voice in the matter. The conclusion is somewhat precipitate. It is certainly not to be denied that in all French elections the Government interferes more than is seemly or right; but it is evident that the Opposition can prevail when they are determined. If twenty-one Opposition candidates could get elected to the Councils-General in spite of Government influences, we have no reason for supposing that many more could not have succeeded, had the electors chosen to return them. In the Corps Législatif, the Opposition members have considerably increased of late years, and the Government candidates are frequently beaten. With manhood suffrage in a population so vast as the French, with large electoral districts, and with the secrecy of the ballot as a further protection, any great perversion of the popular voice seems impossible; and, as regards Government influence, we in England, who are accustomed to see miserable agricultural voters driven like sheep to the poll by the agents of paternal landlords, are hardly entitled to be loftily virtuous. No doubt French customs in this respect require amending in one direction, as ours do in another; but no good is done by wild declamation and exaggerated statements.

THOUGH questioned in some journals, and for a time doubtful, it now appears certain that the Emperor Napoleon will visit the Austrian Emperor at Salzburg. He will go there on the 16th (remaining in Paris for the Fête Napoléon on the 15th), and will stay three days *incognito*. Whether the visit will really have any political character, may be an open question; but such a character is repudiated for it by semi-official writers. It is to be simply, we are assured, a visit of condolence on the death of the ill-fated Maximilian. Of the widow of that unfortunate Prince, better accounts are given. She seems to be recovering the tone of her mind, and has taken carriage exercise in the open air at Brussels, where she now is. What imparts a darker and still more tragical hue to the story of her affliction is the statement, made on the faith of letters from America, that the Empress's malady was entirely owing to poison, administered by a personal attendant. The ferocity of the Mexican character gives only too strong a colour of probability to this terrible assertion.

THE uneasy rumours of war between France and Prussia which agitated the Continental public during the last fortnight are laid for the present, and we may be sure that there is nothing immediately menacing, or, in the existing dearth of political news, writers and speculators would make the most of it. The pretty expressions with reference to the beauty of peace, contained in the French Emperor's reply to the address of the Foreign Commissioners of the Paris Exhibition, are of course of little worth, for such generalities are easily uttered, and as easily forgotten. But the action of France with respect to the Slesvig question does not seem to have committed the country to any hostile course, nor to be such as to necessitate any very strong resentment on the part of Prussia; so the horizon is clear for the moment. More than that, it would be presumptuous to affirm. The French and Italian Governments, also, appear to have come to a satisfactory understanding on the Dumont affair, thanks to the firmness and judgment of Signor Rattazzi, and the conciliatory explanations of the French Minister.

IT is difficult to know when any Continental army really is reduced in numerical strength and otherwise. The reductions in France are often more nominal than real, and the same appears to be the case in Prussia. A large number of soldiers have been dismissed with an unlimited furlough, and this year there are to be no general manœuvres, but only brigade exercises; yet, according to the *Augsburg Gazette*, "this pacific attitude is only apparent. Never has there been so great an activity in the military factories and in all the arsenals. Everything is arranged in such a manner that the Prussian army could at once enter upon a campaign, should that become necessary. At Somwerda, where the first needle-guns were manufactured, as well as at Spandau and Suhl, the work goes on unceasingly. Prussia is at this moment in a position to

arm with rifles of a new and perfect construction, not only the whole of the infantry of the Northern Confederation, but also the first ban of the Landwehr, and, if requisite, the second." The decree relative to the levy of recruits for the year 1866-7, moreover, shows a large increase in the numbers of the army, as compared with last year, amounting, it would seem, to 110,000, to which are to be added the 80,000 men forming the forces of the other States of the North German Confederation, all of whom are at the absolute disposal of Prussia. It is evident, therefore, that it is not France only which is preparing for that dreadful game of chess where the pawns are common fellows, to whom the kings and great ones pay so much a day for the privilege of being shot through the body in the name of Glory.

CERTAIN English journals have recently exhibited a tendency to hold up Prussia to admiration as a truly liberal State, and have lost no opportunity of contrasting her very favourably with France, as showing the two opposing principles of Liberty and Despotism. The fact is that the existing condition of things in both countries is the result of a strong concentration of the national will, very powerfully moved and directed, and is therefore entitled to respectful consideration, though of course not absolved from criticism; but in neither would you look for any striking exhibition of the habits of individual freedom, as we understand them here. Prussia's offences, however, are generally kept in the background, while those of France are held up to view with a most industrious persistency. Led by this feeling, the Paris correspondent of the *Daily News* recently made a droll blunder. Writing on 31st ult., he said:—"The *Cologne Gazette*, received to-day, contains a column and a half in blank. There must be something in the German edition which the editor knew would have occasioned a seizure at the French frontier, and therefore a special edition was prepared for French readers." Of course, the idea of Prussia exercising a censorship for her own sake was out of the question. However, on the 2nd instant, the too confident correspondent was obliged to retract, after this neat fashion:—"I was misled (!) the other day when I stated that the blank column and a half in the *Cologne Gazette* of July 31st was peculiar to a special issue for circulation in France. The censorship which led to the hiatus was exercised by M. de Bismarck's subordinates in Prussia. The article eliminated is said to have advocated the execution of the Treaty of Prague in the way demanded by France." This is hardly the right method to advance the dignity of the English press. By all means let us tell every Government under heaven that it is in the wrong when it is in the wrong; but do not let us go on a principle of favouritism, or we shall lose our credit with the outer world.

OF Garibaldi and his intentions there are very contradictory reports. The *Liberator* appears to be holding himself in readiness, and his son Menotti has been hovering about the Roman frontiers, as if some movement were really in contemplation. The Italian Government, however, has drawn so strong a cordon of troops round the Papal dominions that any attempt on the part of a small irregular force would assuredly be defeated, and the invaders be crushed. Some of the hotter spirits among the Garibaldians are talking of another Aspromonte; but it is to be hoped that the good sense of Garibaldi himself—which is seldom wanting in the long run, though liable to fits of aberration, as in 1862—will prevent such a deplorable calamity.

THE Sultan is back again at Constantinople, and it is said that he will take into consideration the representations of France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and Italy, with respect to the condition of Crete. The collapse of the insurrection in that island is now beyond a doubt. The wretched Christians are being removed by hundreds in French, Russian, and Greek vessels, and the Turks declare that they are themselves supplying 10,000 Cretan Christians with food. Now, therefore, is the time for the Ottoman Government to redeem its past wrong-doings by a generous concession of all just and reasonable claims.

ACCORDING to an extract from a letter received from Mr. Davies, the agent of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company at Aden, dated the 20th ult., and communicated by the secretary of the company to the English press, the Abyssinian captives have been "cut off from the Emperor, both parties being surrounded by the rebels," and it is added that there is "no danger

of their falling into his hands again." This statement is made on the authority of a report brought by her Majesty's steamer *Dalhousie*, which arrived at Aden from Massowah on the 15th of July. It is to be hoped that the rebels will not prove as great rascals as the Emperor, and that we shall soon see the poor captives among us. In the meanwhile, some additional papers on the subject have been printed by order of the House of Commons. They reveal a shocking amount of treachery, hypocrisy, and lying, but do not add anything of importance to our knowledge of the melancholy story.

FROM what is generally known of the manner in which Coventry elections are carried on, we are not surprised to learn that a petition has been lodged against the return of Mr. Jackson, M.P. The curious part of the matter, however, is that the petition is not presented by Mr. Busfield Ferrand, nor does it pray that he shall be elected in Mr. Jackson's place. The natural inference is that Mr. Busfield Ferrand's electioneering tactics have been conducted on the same principles as those of the successful candidate. It is now no secret that Mr. Flower offered to contest the borough "on purity principles," and that his non-acceptance as a candidate proceeded from very different reasons to those which were given in public. The truth is that all such boroughs as Coventry are managed by a committee of some dozen persons. The money is not all spent, as is commonly supposed, in bribing the lower classes. The larger portion of it remains in the hands of the middle-men and wire-pullers. Should the petition be persisted in and a Commission appointed, we should not be surprised if Coventry shared the same fate as Totnes and Yarmouth.

WHAT is the Society for the Suppression of Vice about? It is useless to hunt vice out of the various holes and corners in the metropolis if it be allowed to flourish, unrebuked, in high places. In a recent number, the *Times* published, in an account of a trial at Lincoln, some letters, which we should have thought were more fit for Holywell-street than Printing-house-square. When the penny press was first established, the *Times* denounced cheap newspapers, because they would open the floodgates of immorality. The reverse, however, has taken place. The *Times* now appeals to the public by suppressing Mr. Mill's speeches and giving publicity to a filthy correspondence. Virtue has, we know, been always at a discount. The *Times*, however, has supplied a new commentary upon Pope's lines—

"Vice is undone, if she forgets her birth,
And stoops from angels to the dregs of earth."

Vice, so the *Times* appears to think, should never be sold for less than threepence, but virtue may be had for a penny.

THERE at last seems some hope that the cause of education will be taken up in a statesmanlike way. As soon as the Reform Bill has passed, it must become the one great question of the day. Education should have, by right, preceded Reform. Without it all Reform is valueless. The question, too, must be dealt with broadly. We have on several occasions advocated compulsory education. And Earl Russell now appears to be of the same opinion. Speaking the other day, as chairman of the Richmond British Schools, he rightly insisted that, whatever Parliament might do in the way of bestowing the franchise on the working classes, it was a paramount duty that the poorest of them should "be tolerably educated, and know at least something of reading, writing, and arithmetic." Afterwards he added, in a still more decided strain:—"It always seems to me that there is a very great injustice in the way in which we make our laws fall heavily upon those who commit offences, whilst we do not teach them in their earliest youth." In short, Lord Russell thinks that as the State takes upon itself the right of punishment, so ought it also to take the right of education. Finally, he concludes, by solving the knot which unfortunately the people have tied for themselves, in these words—"it is necessary that the schools should not merely be secular, but that they should combine religious teaching, which should not, however, be sectarian." We trust that Lord Russell will persevere in the subject, which he has so well begun. It is a reproach to the nation that in the question of education England should be so far behind Prussia and the United States.

"MAN plays many parts," says Shakespeare, but Mr. Whalley plays more parts than most men. This certainly goes to prove what so many people suspect, that he is after all a Jesuit. One day he is denouncing the Pope, and the next making Protestantism

ridiculous. One day he speaks as a Liberal, and the next day acts as a Tory. The last procedure is the allegation that no less a body than the Executive Committee of the Birmingham Reform League bring against him. The members, in short, declare that, on the eve of the Birmingham election, Mr. Whalley used "all his influence to advocate and support the claims of the Tory candidate," in opposition to the Liberal. If this conduct is not Jesuitism we really do not know what it is.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH has published an excellent letter in the *Daily News* on the amendment of the Lords, which confers the franchise on tenants of college rooms at Oxford and Cambridge. He rightly points out the peculiar position of an undergraduate *in statu pupillari*. He shows how thoroughly incompatible that state is with the duties of an electors. There can be no doubt that the reason of the amendment lies in the hope that the Tory party, in the city of Oxford at least, will be reinforced by the new votes. Of late years the spirit of Toryism has certainly increased amongst the undergraduates of that university. The present amendment really had its origin, some three or four years ago, in the Oxford Undergraduate Conservatives Society, the chief lights of which were the Presidents of Merton, St. John's, and Trinity. At one of its dinners, if we rightly remember, Lord Cranborne propounded that remarkable political axiom—"No good Churchman exists worthy of the name, who is not also a good Conservative." Our chief objection, however, to the amendment rests in the fact that there is no real connection between the undergraduates and the city. As Mr. Smith well says, "so far as any real local connection is concerned, you might almost as well give a marching regiment votes for the place where it happened to be quartered at the time of an election."

"DISHING the Whigs" was the theme of Mr. Disraeli's speech at the Guildhall banquet last Wednesday. His great hit of the evening was that he had "seen the termination of the monopoly of Liberalism." Now we are certainly not going to defend the great Whig houses, against whom Mr. Disraeli's sarcasm was directed—

"Good heavens forbid that we should puff their glory,
Who know how like Whig ministers to Tory,"

but we do think that the Chancellor of the Exchequer might have adopted a less crowing tone. The man who has consistently opposed every liberal measure that has become the law of the land, can hardly lay claim to be called a Liberal, because he has stolen a Liberal Reform Bill.

OUR modern apostles, it seems, preach their doctrines by the help of the law. Their right hand is now the gaoler. For refusing to pay the sum of 15s. 7½d. levied as a Church-rate, Mr. Forster, a Dissenter, of North Curry, in Somersetshire, now lies a prisoner in Taunton gaol. Mr. Carlyle should take heart. The Church, at all events, will not hear of liberty of conscience. We cannot burn people for their opinions, but we can do what is far more profitable in these money-making days—mulet them with heavy costs, and then as a last resort imprison them until they or their friends pay. Our modern ecclesiastical courts have improved upon the Inquisition. When a man was burnt, he was not of much use; but now we can both torture and make use of him.

MR. BRIGHT has been making a great speech at Manchester. He was thoroughly in his element. Like the bargee, he enjoys "licking a lord." And he certainly destroyed with a real zest two of the most objectionable of the Lords' amendments—voting-papers and what had better be called the restrictive vote. He hit hard, and once rather wildly. We regret excessively his attack on Mr. Mill and Mr. Fawcett. His blows only told against himself. On the whole, however, he did really good service. He showed how voting-papers would be productive of intimidation to the poor, and plural voting to the rich. They would crush the one, whilst they would arm the other with fresh powers. His analysis of the working of the restrictive vote was equally effective. He pointed out that by it such towns as Manchester and Birmingham would be reduced to the level of Dartmouth and Wallingford. Mr. Bright's speech has certainly made the course of all true Liberals quite plain.

SIR COLMAN O'LOUGHLIN'S Libel Bill came on for its third reading in the House of Commons on Wednesday, and, notwithstanding the opposition of Mr. Ayrton, Mr. Newdegate, and, last

and least, Mr. Whalley, passed the House. The reasons given by the hon. member for Peterborough for his opposition were not a little odd. He complained that it was sought by the Bill to overrule the decisions of the courts of law upon the subject. We always thought that our legislators made the laws, and that the courts merely administered them. This, Mr. Whalley would appear desirous of reversing, and, perhaps, as he himself is one of our law-makers, the proposal is not quite without some shadow of reason in its favour. As far as libel is concerned, however, judge-made law is likely to give way before the alterations of the Legislature; but we doubt greatly whether at the present advanced stage of the session we shall see it among the enactments of the year.

SCIENCE.

SCIENTIFIC JOTTINGS.

The continuance of the silkworm disease in France stimulates scientific men to experiment with a view to the best means of detecting and of curing the malady. The method of detection proposed by M. Pasteur, in which the caterpillars are crushed in a mortar and then examined under the microscope, is crude and expensive. M. Balbiani therefore suggests a better mode of diagnosis. When in the chrysalis state, a very small portion of the projecting process which represent the future wing is snipped off with a pair of scissors, and is placed under the microscope; if now the larva be diseased, the peculiar pebrine corpuscles can be distinctly seen. The advantage of M. Balbiani's method is that it does not involve the death or injury of the silkworm.

A Californian geologist has transmitted to Paris a number of very fine photographs of the various points of interest in the chain of the Sierra-Nevada. These exhibit numerous marks of striation similar to those seen on the surface of the rocks composing the Alps. The striations occur at different points between the heights of 1,800 and 3,300 metres above the level of the sea.

At the last meeting of the Société Philomathique of Paris, M. Vulpian directed attention to a curious point in the history of the development of the limbs in the axolotl. Our readers will remember that, according to the researches of M. Dumeril, already reported by us, the limbs of the axolotl are reproduced after amputation, provided the basilar segment be not removed by the knife. M. Vulpian's observations also prove this fact of regeneration. He finds that when a number of axolotls are together, it not unfrequently happens that, from bites and other injuries, portions of the young limbs are destroyed. The consequence of this is not simply the reproduction of the part destroyed, but the formation of even a greater number of parts than were normally present before the injury. This, he says, is the reason why we so often find specimens of axolotls whose fore limbs have five or six digits, instead of four, and whose hind ones have as many as six or seven extremities, instead of five.

The cause of the softening process which takes place in bone attacked with Osteomalacea has been explained by M. Drivon, who, in a memoir just published, states the following conclusions:—The diseased bones contain lactates, and probably lactic acid in considerable quantity; these help to dissolve the earthy carbonates and phosphates, which being then resorbed produce the softened condition characteristic of this malady.

M. Zalesky has been experimenting on the poisonous liquid secreted by the *Salamandra maculata*, and has, by a series of chemical operations, succeeded in isolating the organic principle on which the action of the secretion depends. When properly prepared this principle appears as an amorphous colourless mass, which is soluble in water, and may be obtained in crystalline form. M. Zalesky proposes to call it *Salamandrine*, and gives it the formula $C^{54}H^{60}Az^2O^5$. It produces all the effects of the crude poison, viz., a sense of anxiety, shivering, convulsions, and death.

M. Serres continues his fine researches on the anatomy of the extinct Mesotherium. In the memoir just presented to the French Academy, he describes the structure and conformation of the parts entering into the cranium and face of this mammal. The details are too technical for notice in these pages, but are of the highest interest to the advanced palaeontologist.

The British Medical Association has been holding its meetings in Dublin during the week. Many of our most distinguished physicians and surgeons have communicated papers on professional subjects.

Signor Matteucci, the most celebrated of electro-physiologists—if we may use such an expression—has just published a paper on the secondary electro-motor power of nerves, which promises to throw much light on some of the more obscure problems of nutrition and secretion. He finds that this secondary force is much more powerful and permanent than is generally supposed, and that it has a most important influence over the various chemico-vital operations performed by the tissues. He has not yet concluded his general statement, but intends to continue his remarks in a series of essays to be published forthwith.

The French Academy's commission for the award of the prize of Medicine and Surgery for 1867 has been nominated. It comprises the following names—Velpeau, Cloquet, Serres, Rayer, Nélaton, Andral, Robin, Longet, and Claude Bernard.

M. Zaliwski-Mikorski has invented a new syphon, which he thinks likely to prove useful in the chemical laboratory. In using

the ordinary syphon, it sometimes happens that noxious and even poisonous fluids pass into the mouth. The new syphon is not "set in work" by suction. One of its legs is provided with a small accessory tube, and by blowing through this latter the fluid moves along the syphon.

M. Bizio publishes a note in which he says that the amylaceous matter some time since discovered by him in the substance of various invertebrate animals has proved on chemical investigation to be nothing less nor more than *Glycogen*.

Dr. T. L. Phipson has described a simple method of ascertaining the presence of bromine and iodine in the same solution, which may be useful to those engaged in testing mineral waters for their elements. The method is based on the fact that in the presence of sulphide of carbon and free chlorine iodides are first decomposed and afterwards the bromides, and further that the chlorine acts upon the iodine dissolved in the sulphide of carbon to form quintichloride of iodine, which dissolves, and leaves the sulphate of carbon colourless (*le sulfate de carbone*) (?). If bromides be present, the sulphide of carbon assumes an orange colour.

The cause of the movements of the Sensitive Plant can hardly be considered decided. Some say it is not true contraction, but merely a motion of fluid! Others, that it is accompanied by electric changes, and is, therefore, allied to muscular motion. The observations which M. P. L. Bert publishes, throw hardly any new light on this question; they indicate, however, one important point, viz., that the natural and regular movement of the leaves is produced by a different cause from that of sudden contraction resulting from contact with the fingers. Ether seems to have no effect upon the former, but it produces an anæsthetic effort which prevents the latter.

The following is the process employed at Dittenburg, Nassau, for the production of the copper-nickel alloy:—(1.) *Raw melting*: roasting the ore and smelting it to coarse metal. (2.) *Concentration melting*: roasting the coarse metal and smelting it to the concentration of a regulus. (3.) *Refining melting*: separation of the iron from the concentrated regulus. (4.) *Roasting and reducing process*: transformation of the regulus into oxides of copper and nickel by roasting, and the reduction of the latter to copper nickel. The further details of the processes will be found in an essay by Dr. Stromeyer in the *Chemical News*, Aug. 2.

In the *Philosophical Magazine*, Mr. Tomlinson, of King's College, has a paper on the subject of the disengagement of gases by liquids, into which a solid such as a glass rod has been plunged. Mr. Tomlinson concludes, from several experiments, that the disengagement is caused by the circumstance that the glass rod is not chemically clean, and that when the glass is chemically clean there is no true disengagement.

Mr. Lippincott has published the results of his observations on the presence of ozone in the air during the three months of April, May, and June. In April there was a marked period of ozone from the 4th to the 11th. In May there were marked periods during the 14th, 15th, and 25th. In June there were two marked periods, the first from the 4th to the 8th, and the second from the 24th to the 28th.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

THE MONEY MARKET.

FRIDAY MORNING.

THE money market during the past week has been generally quiet. The introduction of the new Russian loan has not increased the demand for discount, nor has the unseasonable weather for the harvest which for some days prevailed exercised any material effect. The best paper is readily discounted at anything above $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., although the ordinary rate is quoted at $1\frac{1}{4}$. Some expectation was entertained that the Bank yesterday would have reduced the existing minimum of 2 per cent., but no change took place. It is a question, however, whether another downward movement can be deferred much longer. The influx of gold from America shows no signs of diminution, and the foreign exchange remains generally firm. Rather more demand, it is true, has arisen for remittances to the East, but it is not sufficient to exercise any appreciable effect. At the same time, our resources continue to accumulate; and there is as little chance as there has been for weeks back of finding an adequate channel for their employment. Perhaps in no previous period of commercial history has distrust been so long maintained. Usually a year has sufficed to at least partially obliterate the sense of previous disaster, and if not to restore absolute confidence, at all events, to render unnecessary the excessive precautions adopted in a time of actual crisis. Our ordinary experience is reversed now. If the panic has actually passed away, its consequences still remain. Even as much as fifteen months ago confidence was generally withheld, so now it seems as far from being reinstated as ever.

Late last week the new Russian loan of £12,000,000 nominal capital was brought forward on terms yielding about 7 per cent. to the subscribers. At present the project has met with no response. Hardly any public subscriptions have been sent in, and although an attempt was made to quote the new bonds

at a premium on the Stock Exchange, it was thoroughly understood that the price was merely nominal. From all appearances the public have thoroughly taken to heart the lessons taught for many years back of the inadvisability of entering into these investments. A certain class of foreign Governments seem in fact to think that the credulity or confidence, to use a milder term, of British capitalists is inexhaustible. Year after year a new loan is brought forward, on a variety of pretexts, and invariably at a lower price than its predecessor. For some time the plan was successful enough, but it is now pretty nigh exhausted. Certainly if a State enjoying, and deservedly, so high a credit as Russia, is unable to place her bonds at something over 7 per cent., other Governments are not likely to fare better. Even the Spanish Passive Bondholders, who for years have been deprived of their just rights, refuse to accept a compromise, since the proposed arrangement involves a further advance to the Madrid Government. In the general interest, this change in the public feeling from blind trust to salutary caution, is certain to be beneficial. With hardly any exceptions, the money raised by loans for apparently the most peaceful and laudable objects, has somehow been diverted to military expenditure, extravagant armaments, and, as a frequent consequence, to aggressive war. If only one-fourth of the sums obtained on the plea of establishing banks, encouraging commerce, rehabilitating the currency, constructing railways, and so forth, had been devoted to their ostensible purpose, the world would have been far better off than it is now. Government capital would, as rarely happens, have then been invested for a reproductive purpose.

The troubles in the railway world are still a long way from solution. The issue of pre-preference stock having been condemned for the unanswerable reasons that it would be contrary to public faith and would render all Parliamentary guarantees of no practical value, no one seems to understand what is the next best step to be taken. There seems little doubt that eventually the companies in difficulties will be obliged to raise the money they require by the issue of ordinary stock, no matter how great the discount. The present proprietors appear unwilling, naturally enough, to accept this expedient, but it must come sooner or latter. It is only in strict justice that the persons who originated or rather permitted the proceedings which have resulted in the present financial collapse should bear the burden. The original, or as they are termed, ordinary shareholders, are responsible for allowing the creation of preference stocks, and having incurred a certain liability, have no right to attempt to shirk it. Nothing could be worse than to obtain Parliamentary sanction to override obligations created by Parliament itself. The attempt only evinces the unfortunate straits to which some of the companies have been reduced. On the other hand, it is but just to add that if certain flagrant examples have been exhibited of financial misconduct and reckless extravagance, most of our great companies are as well managed as our joint-stock enterprises usually are. It is certain that the proposed dividends recently announced have exceeded the general expectation, and the speculators for the fall, who calculated upon the inability of all railways to pay little or nothing on the ordinary stocks, have been frightened into buying back as quietly as possible.

The apathy of the public with regard to joint-stock enterprises continues as marked as ever. There is absolutely no chance of success for any new project, even the most promising and well matured. Two years ago the public were prepared to accept anything, however bad; now they refuse to take anything, however good. This disinclination—the natural fruit of previous over-confidence—extends not only to new companies but also to those which have been long established. It is by no means uncommon to hear a contemplating investor express his wonder that such and such shares should be at a discount, and that it would be well worth while to try them. He may probably strengthen his argument by showing that it is utterly out of the question that the company has lost a tithe of the capital which is represented by the depreciation in the value of the shares. Common observers might think that so judicious a man of business is sure to take advantage of the unreasonable state of public opinion, and turn in at once. They would be egregiously mistaken. Judicious men of business, as a rule, to which there are hardly any exceptions, follow, as blindly as any one else, the public lead. If buyers are few, they also keep back; if everybody is selling, they are among the first to sacrifice their securities for perhaps nominal prices. Hence, before we can expect a recovery from the present depression, we must look forward to a general reaction in the public mind.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

BUNSEN'S EGYPT'S PLACE.*

(FIRST NOTICE.)

THERE is something heroic in a magnificent failure. It can only be made by a man of large ideas and of daring enough to attempt their execution; one of those men who go through with enterprises that to vulgar minds seem mere impossibilities. Even if wholly unsuccessful, not only a general failure, but a failure in all its details, still it is a lesson to others to aim above the common level. And thus it becomes criticism to deal leniently with scholarlike books of wide compass, however little they may satisfy its judgment, rather praising the authors for having been over-bold than blaming them for having passed the bounds of ordinary ambition.

Bunsen, taught by Niebuhr, and self-trained by a study of the antiquities of Italy, turned his mature attention to ancient Egypt, that he might bring German criticism to the explanation of its newly-understood monuments, for it must be remembered that the work only now posthumously completed was begun to be written nearly thirty years ago. With the far sight of an historical critic he did not wish to confine his researches to Egypt alone. Monuments reaching back, with but few considerable gaps, from the third century after Christ to at least the twenty-fourth before Christ, to at least four thousand years ago, and beyond the monuments of all other nations full of historical information, could scarcely fail to tell as much directly and indirectly of those countries which were foreign to Egypt, as of Egypt itself. The language of their inscriptions, with its hold, on the one hand, on the rudest forms of human speech, the monosyllabic Nigritian and Chinese, on the other, on the elaborate family to which Hebrew belongs, might bridge over the seemingly-impassable chasm between the speech of barbarous and of civilized races. The arts and sciences of Egypt might be found to hold the germ of what afterwards Greece knew and taught the ancient and the modern world. The historical information as to Egypt and its neighbours might even afford new materials for primæval history. The inquiries which might be made with the aid of these new data were, in Bunsen's opinion, these:—The restoration of Egyptian chronology, the determination by means of the study of their language of the place of the Egyptians in primæval history, especially with reference to the Shemites and the Indo-Europeans, and as a result of the latter, the acquisition of more certain bases for the history of mankind.

There is, perhaps, no subject of critical inquiry upon which scholars have so widely differed as Egyptian chronology. The interval from Menes, the first king, to the Christian era has been so variously computed, that the longest system is double the length of the shortest, and, even now, when a better knowledge of the monuments has led to greater moderation, the current schemes differ more than a thousand years, a circumstance affording convincing proof that the materials give no obvious solution of the difficulties of the case. Bunsen started with his first problem in this form:—"Is the chronology of Egypt, as embodied in the dynasties of Manetho, capable of restoration, wholly or in part, by means of the monuments and the names of its kings?" Here are the two elements, the Egyptian historian and the Egyptian monuments. Manetho, had we his work in a complete state, or even the list of dynasties with the original numbers, might furnish a framework in which to set the monumental data. He was an Egyptian priest under the rule of the Ptolemies, whose work, even in its present state, shows he had access to, and understood his native documents. The evidence of the monuments, though without a general era, and affording but few connected chronological periods, and these only approximately determined, would be far more available for the solution of the problem could we ascertain from Manetho even the duration of the whole period of his dynasties. The great effort of those who have endeavoured to reconstruct Egyptian chronology has been to determine this interval. For this purpose the remains attributed to Manetho afford two methods. Either we may take his numbers for the dynasties, and endeavour to ascertain the chronological interval, or we may accept, as drowning men catch at straws, a very doubtful statement of the length of that interval given on his authority. The former plan affords great scope for ingenuity. Some, indeed, may still follow Boeckh, and make the thirty or thirty-one dynasties successive, with a vast duration of five thousand years, with perhaps a few hundreds more, but the time is past when that great scholar's method can be admitted to be critical: the Egyptian monuments themselves will not allow it. Others, admitting with Bunsen and Lepsius and all English scholars who have written on the subject, that some of the dynasties must have been contemporary, attempt to arrange them in such an order as that those proved by their monuments to have been the most important, should form a succession, and afford in their sums a solution to the chronological question. Bunsen, however, while admitting this method, preferred to make the result secure by accepting the doubtful statement of the length of the whole period, into which, of course, there could be no difficulty in fitting the dynasties, as it reduced the period of their total by about two thousand years, and so brought their duration within the limits that historical critics thought probable, though the monuments were not precise enough to render certain anything more than a considerable reduction. The doubtful statement allows the thirty dynasties (the thirty-first, which perhaps is not Manethonian, being omitted) a duration in the whole of 3,555

years. It is not necessary here to go into the question of its authenticity, for Bunsen repudiates it, as a whole, as a chronological reckoning, though strangely enough admitting one of its divisions, according to his explanation of it, to be essentially chronological. He does not, however, like to go back into the remote beginnings the so-called Manethonian statement would assign to the Egyptian kingdom with but a single support. He looks about, and finds in the Canon of Eratosthenes a second chronological system by which to confirm generally, and specially to adjust the numbers of Manetho. The main chronological facts of this canon are the following. According to Syncellus, the Byzantine chronographer, Eratosthenes gave a list of thirty-eight kings, from Menes downwards, who ruled 1,076 years, and Apollodorus, who handed down this canon, added to it, on what authority is not said, a further list of fifty-three kings. Of the list of Eratosthenes we have the names and the lengths of the individual reigns, of that of Apollodorus nothing but the number of kings. Bunsen having divided the dynasties of Manetho into those of the Old, Middle, and New Empire, the commencements of which are marked by the accession of Menes, the invasion and conquest of Egypt by the Hycsos, and the last Persian conquest, finds there is some reason for thinking the Canon of Eratosthenes to represent the part of Manetho's list containing the Old Empire. We say some reason, for we do not think the case conclusively made out. Bunsen, however, assuming the identity in question, and finding the sum of Eratosthenes to be much lower than that of Manetho, and moreover finding the individual reigns very different, adopts the former sum, and concludes the latter not to be strictly chronological. Yet for the period of the New Empire he adopts the Manethonian sum, with some correction. There remains the Middle Empire. If the sums of the Manethonian dynasties of the Old Empire, which correspond in Bunsen's opinion to the Canon of Eratosthenes, be added to those of the New Empire thus corrected—observe a non-chronological and an essentially chronological period being added together—and these be subtracted from the non-chronological total of 3,555 years, we obtain a non-chronological period, the Manethonian reckoning of 922 years for the Middle Empire. This method of computation, adopted by Bunsen in vol. ii. (pp. 452 *et seq.*), seems by far the most reasonable method of discovering how much of the 3,555 years Manetho allowed to the Middle Empire, if only we suppose the sums of the Old and New Empire to be equally chronological. This sum, 922 years, he at first unhesitatingly adopted as the true chronological measure of this obscure period, but ultimately, with his customary and admirable readiness to abandon an untenable position, and with great critical sagacity, he abandoned it and took in its stead a sum of 350 years. The first reckoning makes the accession of Menes B.C. 3643 (vol. i. p. 579), a date afterwards modified to B.C. 3623 (iv. p. 502), and thus makes the 3,555 years equivalent to a chronological period of 3,303 or 3,283 years, if with Bunsen we make it end B.C. 340, the second reckoning makes this leading era B.C. 3059 (v. p. 62), and thus reduces the chronological period to 2,719 years. So great a reduction, however probable, were it proved that the supposed Manethonian period was not chronological, but made up of the full reigns of a succession of kings, with no allowance for co-regency or overlapping of reigns, undoubtedly deprives that period of any value whatever. There can be no reason why it should not be reduced by a thousand years or more.

In endeavouring to explain Bunsen's attempt to obtain a fixed Egyptian chronology, we have sufficiently shown its unsoundness. An examination of the details will not put it in a more favourable position. The idea that the Canon of Eratosthenes and the fragments of Manetho can be moulded into one system has been abandoned by every other scholar. Of the thirty-eight reigns of the former document, Bunsen compares twenty-six with twenty-five of Manetho's reigns, the other reigns being assigned to Manethonian dynasties of which the individual names and reigns are not stated. In these twenty-six and twenty-five reigns there are but four actual and four closely approximative agreements in duration. The latter may be also actual correspondences, as the difference may arise from a different manner of allowing for the excess of months over the complete years reigned. Such an agreement is obviously no agreement at all, and we are forced to conclude that, by some strange accident, the list of names mainly in right chronological order given by Eratosthenes is accompanied by numbers generally erroneous; for if one of the two authorities must be given up, it is clear that Eratosthenes is that one, as when direct monumental data are at hand, they show the majority of Manetho's numbers to be correct. The 350 years, Bunsen's last reckoning for the Middle Empire, appears to be obtained, by some computation of average reigns, from the number of kings, fifty-three, stated by Apollodorus, in continuation of the Canon of Eratosthenes, for Syncellus says nothing of any chronological interval assigned to them; and in vol. ii. (p. 461) it is admitted that the period of these kings can only be obtained from Manetho. Yet in vol. iv. (p. 513) and vol. v. (p. 57) the short sum of 350 years is actually given as on the authority of Apollodorus, with no explanation whatever. We have entirely failed to discover any ground for this positive statement, probable as it would be, were it certain that the fifty-three kings of Apollodorus represent those of the Middle Empire. Bunsen's Egyptian chronology is, in fact, founded on a series of arbitrary conjectures. It is, however, perhaps worthy of remark, that he should have ended by moderating his reckoning of the duration of the Egyptian dynasties, thus parting company with Lepsius and Brugsch, and approaching the systems of English students, which he always disliked.

* *Egypt's Place in Universal History*. By C. C. J. Bunsen, D.Ph., D.C.L. London: Longmans, 1848—1867, and Vol. I., Second Edition, 1867.

These chronological speculations of Bunsen's have very little direct value. Their indirect value is, however, considerable, for they led him to a close study of Egyptian history, to which it is unfortunate he did not give a more undivided attention, as through it ultimately his first problem will, in all probability, be mainly solved. Perhaps, indeed, fixed dates may be obtained from the records of astronomical observations; but the general duration of Egyptian chronology and many of its details will, we may reasonably suppose, be ultimately fixed, approximatively but so far surely, by a knowledge of the history of each dynasty, perhaps of each reign, and by pedigrees whether of kings or of subjects.

The first problem is thus left unsolved by Bunsen. All his careful labour, his successive reconsiderations of the subject, tend mainly to show nothing but that he has approached the problem on a basis of false axioms, and by an inaccurate method. The considerable part of this great work which treats of Egyptian chronology is but a monument, noble, indeed, and in some sense lasting, of misdirected learning; yet the very fact of its failure is an evidence of the large idea of the author, who was not contented without a thorough solution, and one that should result from the consideration of all the available data. Thus he has proved the impossibility of an agreement between Manetho and Eratosthenes by the very pains he has taken to produce that agreement. And where all others have failed, it is no disgrace that even Bunsen should have been unable to achieve that for which perhaps we have as yet no sufficient evidence. Of him at least it can be said, that he spared no pains and neglected no information. The faults of his mind, his hasty reasoning, his general blindness to the objections to a favourite theory, even where they amount to absolute disproof, certainly did not qualify him for the delicate task of dealing with data that only a Fynes-Clinton could have handled without falling into absurdities; yet it must be remembered that the solid learning of Lepsius, and the brilliant acuteness of Brugsch, have done nothing better, while the cold judgment of De Rouge and the timidity of Birch have refused the problem altogether. He compensated for the faults of his method by his earnestness of purpose and untiring energy, for, at the very last, by a happy instinct, he arrived nearer a correct solution, if we may venture to say so, than those two rivals who have divided with him the honour of encountering the Sphinx, determined at all hazards to find the answer of her enigma.

MARINE INSURANCE.*

MR. HOPKINS is already known to the commercial public as the author of a work upon one branch of the subject which he has in the volume before us treated as a whole. His reputation will not suffer by the present book, which is a very useful and careful survey of the whole field, both of the law and practice of marine insurance. It does not of course make any pretension to rival the excellent work of Mr. Arnould as a legal treatise; but on the other hand, while it states with great clearness and fulness the principles of the law as they are applicable to each head of the subject, it discusses with the insight of a man of business their most important practical bearings. It treats in considerable detail the many questions rather of a commercial than of a legal character which are connected with the subject of marine insurance; and taking the book altogether, it is very well adapted for the purpose for which it is mainly designed—the information of those who, either entering on the pursuit of insurance business, desire to make themselves acquainted with the system as a whole, or of those who, being already familiar with the general outlines and many details of the subject, feel the need of a work of ready reference for special points of doctrine or practice. Our readers would however, we fear, scarcely thank us for entering in these columns upon any discussion of the commercial or legal topics which form the staple of Mr. Hopkins's book. There is, however, one portion of his work of a more popular character. In an introductory chapter he gives us the best sketch of the rise and progress of marine insurance with which we have ever met, and a brief summary of his researches on this subject will probably be acceptable to all who take an interest in the history and present condition of an important branch of our commercial organization.

It is commonly supposed that marine insurance is recognised in the code of Justinian; and this idea derives countenance from the authority of Gibbon. But Mr. Hopkins shows very clearly that the passages in the code and pandects referred to by the great historian relate to maritime interest—that is to say, to the consideration given in a bond of bottomry or hypothecation and not to the premium for insurance. The practice of lending money for mercantile purposes on the security of ships engaged in trade was well known both to the Greeks and Romans; and their lawgivers very naturally were of opinion that upon loans attended with so much risk a higher rate of interest should be legally recoverable than for advances made on land or other permanent security. But although it is evident, from a Latin inscription found at Lanuvium, an ancient town of Latium, about nine miles from Rome, that in the time of the Emperor Hadrian, there was then in existence at that place a society, formed for the insurance of lives on a plan closely resembling that of a modern benefit society, there is no trace of the principle of insurance having been applied in ancient times, or even under the lower empire, to the protection of commerce

against maritime risks. There is, indeed, no proof of the existence of the system even in the earlier portion of the middle ages; and from the fact that neither the *Consolato del Mare* nor the laws of Oleron contain any reference to it, we are warranted in arriving at the conclusion that it was then unknown. It is certain that it was first introduced by the traders of North Italy; and it is said by some writers that it was in general use in that country at the end of the twelfth century. But the latter assertion seems to rest on no solid foundation. The first really authentic and unequivocal reference to insurance is contained in a MS. Act of the Republic of Venice, under the date of May 15, 1411. This Act was directed to the prohibition of insurances on foreign vessels by Venetian underwriters, and its language undoubtedly implies that insurance was then well known and was a thing which had been practised for some time by the traders of the republic. From Venice there is reason to believe that it was directly introduced into England. At any rate, the first clear indication which Mr. Hopkins has been able to find of underwriting in this country comes to us from that city:—"Amongst the [Venetian] State documents calendered by Mr. Rawdon Brown is found the representation by a Venetian merchant made in 1512 that assurances were being effected in England on property from Candia; and that the rate of premium was above 10 per cent." Considering the intimate commercial relations which then existed between England and Venice, it is certainly most likely that a practice which prevailed on the Exchange of one country would rapidly spread to that of the other; and some proof that this was actually the case is furnished by the fact that even down to the present day it is provided in every policy of insurance, that it shall be as valid as any "heretofore made in Lombard-street"—originally, as every one knows, the resort of the Italian merchants, from whom the narrow City lane takes its name. It seems, at any rate, to be certain that marine insurance was practised in England before it was in use in the northern part of the continent of Europe; and that even Antwerp, then in the meridian of its commercial eminence, derived it from our merchants. In 1560, Guicciardini states that the traders of England and the Netherlands "have fallen into a way of insuring their merchandise at sea by a joint contribution;" and we may perhaps assume with safety that about this period the practice became tolerably general in the commercial world of Europe.

By 1601 the amount of underwriting business done on the London Exchange had become so considerable, that an Act of Parliament was in that year passed for the establishment of a Court of Policies to decide disputes arising out of these documents. For reasons on which we need not now dwell, this tribunal failed to attract much business; and although it was subsequently reconstituted on an improved basis in the reign of Charles II., it had even then no better fate, and ultimately expired of sheer inanition. Insurance was originally carried on in England, as in Venice and on the Continent generally, by individual underwriters in Lombard-street, who afterwards, for their own convenience and that of the insured, assembled at a coffee-house—the first establishment of the kind in England—which was opened in a yard off that street about the middle of the seventeenth century. In 1710 they transferred their place of meeting to another coffee-house opened by a person named Lloyd in Abchurch-lane—and it is from this Lloyd that the body of English underwriters have since acquired the sort of corporate name under which they are known all over the world. In 1720 the two first insurance companies—the London Assurance and the Royal Exchange Assurance—were incorporated. They owed their existence to the necessities of George I.; and the consideration on which they obtained their charters was the promise—eventually only half fulfilled—to pay his Majesty a sum of £600,000. Established in the year of the South Sea mania, the stock of the two companies was soon raised to an extravagant premium; but when the financial bubble burst, it experienced a more than corresponding depression and from that circumstance and an accumulation of disasters at sea they were for some time involved in serious difficulties. Eventually, however, these difficulties were surmounted, and for more than a hundred years they succeeded in maintaining their exclusive privileges as the only insurance companies sanctioned or permitted by law. It required at least fourteen years' agitation to convince Parliament of the impolicy of maintaining this monopoly. In 1810, the New Insurance Company was formed, with a capital of £5,000,000 sterling, and Parliament was appealed to in order to remove the restrictions which prevented its entering upon business. After an elaborate and lengthened inquiry into the subject, a committee of the House of Commons reported that the exclusive privileges of the two great companies should be repealed, and that encouragement should be given to other associations for the promotion of sea-insurance. The influence of the monopolists was, however, sufficient to protract the contest for fourteen years; and it was not until 1824 that marine insurance was thrown open, like life and fire insurance, to joint-stock enterprise and energy. To those who are unacquainted with our commercial history, the folly of Parliament in so long maintaining the restrictions we have mentioned may cause some surprise. But in fact it is only of a piece with the whole of our legislation down to a very recent period. Every branch of trade, industry, and mercantile association has had in turn to struggle for life, against the stupidity and the obstinacy of our rulers, who are even yet far from being disabused of the notion that they know better than traders what is good for trade.

From 1824 the number of English marine insurance companies has steadily increased with the augmenting business offered to them by our expanding trade. It is not, however, necessary, nor could

* A Manual of Marine Insurance. By Manley Hopkins, Author of "A Handbook of Average," &c. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

it indeed be of any interest, to notice their establishment in any detail. We may, however, give in a condensed form the general *résumé* with which Mr. Hopkins furnishes us of the associations or private individuals by which the underwriting of marine risks is now carried on:—

"London continues to be, as she has always been, the great English mart of insurance. It is true that mutual insurance associations for ships have multiplied round our coasts, and have proved themselves very serviceable to local communities. Liverpool and Glasgow have long possessed underwriters' rooms, and have transacted a large amount of business. Yet the enormous import and export commerce of Lancashire did not lead, till very lately, to the erection of any independent marine insurance companies, either in the great western port or in Manchester. Latterly, two or three offices have been established there, and Bristol has claimed the right of drawing marine insurance business to its busy mercantile city. Yet in all these places the insurance system flourishes rather like an exotic, having its true habitat in the metropolis of the empire. There are in London at the present time upwards of twenty proprietary marine insurance companies, besides several mutual ship insurance associations, which extend their operations in a smaller degree to the protection of freights and outfits. The aggregate of members and subscribers to Lloyd's is rather above fifteen hundred, of whom four hundred are underwriting members. The China, India, Colonial, and a few foreign insurance companies have agencies here, and some of them take outward risks. There is also a circle of Irish underwriters, having a *gérant* or agent in London. Throughout Europe, insurance may be said to be now largely practised—Paris and Hamburg taking the lead. In Paris the insuring power consists of thirty-one companies, and there are, besides, nine agencies of companies having their head administration in other parts of France, three agencies of foreign insurance companies, and three *réunions*, or circles of private underwriters, each of which acts by a *gérant*. In Hamburg there are twenty-two joint-stock companies, a circle of private underwriters, having a capital of forty millions of marks banco, and the agencies of thirteen foreign companies. Insurance is practised with more or less activity in other parts of Europe; and among the northern cities of the Continent Stettin appears to take the lead. In New York, Boston, San Francisco, and other places in the United States, insurance is extensively carried on."

HISTORY OF PHILOSOPHY.*

(SECOND NOTICE.)

ANCIENT Philosophy, to which Mr. Lewes devotes his first volume, begins with Thales, the founder of the Ionian or Physical school, and ends with Proclus, the great representative of Alexandrian Mysticism in the fifth century after Christ. The separation of the philosophical from the theological way of viewing phenomena was the aim of the first, the interpretation by Faith of the problems found to be insoluble by Reason was the hopeless attempt of the other. Between these two our author enumerates seven epochs, during which the various problems of Existence and of the nature and origin of human knowledge were stated and re-stated, vainly seeking for the settled answer, which, according to Mr. Lewes, from pursuing a wrong method, they were never likely to obtain. Nothing gives us such an idea of the range and rapidity of the Greek intellect as the fact that within a hundred and fifty years from the dawn of inquiry all the main problems of Philosophy had been apprehended, investigated, and discussed. Ontological speculations were first tried, and failed; the outward world refused to give up its secrets to the material agencies of the Physicists or to the more spiritual explanations of the Mathematical and Eleatic schools. From the failure of Ontology, Psychology was born; if the world could not be interpreted, perhaps man might be; and it was not long before the examination of the origin and limits of human knowledge led to the foundation of Logic as an organon or system of instruments for obtaining, measuring, and discerning intellectual truth. If Socrates for a time interrupted the march of speculation by directing it into an Ethical channel, Plato, and still more Aristotle, brought it back before long into the path of Metaphysics, widened, elevated, and systematized. Practically the interest of Greek speculation ends with the Aristotelian philosophy. Dreary epochs of Scepticism, followed by Mysticism, succeed, which can only be interesting to those who, in the interest of the Positive Method, find, like Mr. Lewes, a delight in exposing the futility of Philosophy altogether.

It would take us too long to point out the numerous additions, corrections, and improvements, which Mr. Lewes has made in this branch of his subject, as compared with the treatment it received in his former editions. Indeed, he tells us that the chapters on Plato and Aristotle have been rewritten altogether. Mr. Grote's able volumes, to which our author does not disguise his obligations, have thrown much fresh light on the former; and his own admirable work on "Aristotle" is a proof of the deep and conscientious study which in later years Mr. Lewes has bestowed on the "master of those who know." Nothing could be more meagre, and, in some places, erroneous, than his first sketch of Aristotle, which entirely omitted the Ethical, Physical, and above all, the Psychological treatises. Even in the present volumes we perceive that he denies his readers any exposition of the Ethical system, clearly connected as are all Ethics, and in an especial degree those of Aristotle with Metaphysics. We hope that in a future edition Mr. Lewes may be induced to repair this defect, and complete his picture of

the Stagyrte in a few additional pages on the Moral, as connected with the Metaphysical, philosophy of the intellectual grandson of Socrates. We do not think that Mr. Lewes always does justice to Plato. We question if he shows sufficient appreciation of the Logic embodied in, rather than formally taught by, his writings. We should not be disposed to affirm that "in Plato's Ethics the passions are *entirely* set aside;" we conceive that the entire philosophy of Plato is something more than "speculative yeast," and does something more than "make men occasionally conscious that they have no tenable grounds for their opinions." But Mr. Lewes is not a writer to disagree with lightly; he has studied for himself in the original, and not in translations, the authors whom he criticises; and although we should be glad occasionally of more references than are given, we seldom, if ever, find any inaccuracy of statement, or arbitrariness of unsupported judgment. We cannot carry our readers away from the subject of Ancient Philosophy without presenting to them the author's estimate of the whole intellectual movement in his own eloquent and earnest words:—

"In reviewing the history of Greek speculations from the 'Water' of Thales to the 'Absolute Negation' of Platinus, what a reflection is forced upon us of the vanity of Metaphysics! So many years of laborious inquiry, so many splendid minds engaged, and, after the lapse of ages, the inquiry remains the same, the answer only more ingeniously absurd! Was, then, all this labour vain? Were those long, laborious years all wasted? Were those splendid minds all useless? No! Earnest endeavour is seldom without result. Those centuries of speculation were not useless, they were the education of the human race. They taught mankind this truth at least: the Infinite cannot be known by the Finite; and man, as finite, can only know phenomena. These labours, so fruitless in their immediate object, have indirect lessons. The speculations of the Greeks preserve the same privilege as the glorious products of their art and literature; they are the models from which the speculations of posterity are reproductions. The history of modern metaphysical philosophy is but the narrative of the same struggles which agitated Greece. The same problems are revived, and the same answers offered"—(vol. i, p. 395).

We cannot conceive Mr. Lewes feeling much sympathy with the speculations of the mediæval period,—a branch of his subject which in his earliest edition he omitted altogether. He confesses still to an impatience of the wordy folios of the Schoolmen, with which he candidly acknowledges his acquaintance to be slight. But this has not prevented him from writing a very fair chapter on "Scholasticism," presenting in clear outline its general features and true place in the development of philosophy, though the omission of any notice, biographical or literary, of Thomas Aquinas, in a sketch of mediæval thought, is scarcely excusable on the ground that such information may be found elsewhere. Our author has, however, in part atoned for his superficial review of the Schoolmen by a new and excellent chapter on the Arabian Philosophy of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Until the recent works upon the subject by Munk, Rénan, and others, little was known for certain about the views of Al-Farabi and Avicenna, Averroes and Avicbron. Mr. Lewes, in his second volume, has compressed into a few pages an able survey of the Mohammedan philosophers, though we are surprised to find so low an estimate formed of their contributions to science, notwithstanding the earnestness with which they collected facts, the ingenuity with which they invented instruments, and the profound acquaintance which many of them had with mathematics, chemistry, and medicine. Mr. Lewes ascribes their failure to the defect in method, to the use of observation unchecked by experiment, and limits their service in the cause of philosophy to their preservation of the works of Aristotle, and the sceptical direction they imparted to European thought. There are many additions beside those enumerated which have swelled the second volume to an imposing size. One or two of them run into detailed criticisms of modern systems, which, valuable as they may be in themselves, somewhat interrupt the continuity of our author's "History."

For example, we would gladly have sacrificed the elaborate refutation of the phrenological hypothesis in the chapter on "Gib" for some notice of the philosophy of Rousseau and the French encyclopædists, which is entirely passed over by Mr. Lewes. At the same time France has full justice done to her last and greatest thinker by his independent, yet admiring, disciple; we do not know any author, not even M. Littré, his fellow-countryman, who has given, within so little compass, such an admirable exposition of M. Comte's philosophy. Every page shows that Mr. Lewes's mind is profoundly versed in the minutest details of the Positive system, to which he yields the assent of an original and critical intellect satisfied with the solution which that philosophy renders of all the questions it undertakes to meet concerning the world, society, and man. At the same time nothing shows more clearly the author's independent admiration of M. Comte's system than his rejection of the religion developed in the philosopher's later works out of his other speculations. He does not scruple to point out the inconsistency of the method adopted in the "Politique" and the "Catéchisme" with that required by the spirit of the Positive Philosophy, and maintains that the religion of humanity is no better than other utopias, except so far as it is based on the past history of man; nor does he conceal his dislike to the French love of systematization, which burdened that religious scheme with a multitude of petty prescriptions and ceremonies scarcely equalled by those of the Levitical law. We wish that all of M. Comte's adherents in England were as discriminating and unbiassed as the author of this admirable sketch of Positivism.

* The History of Philosophy. From Thales to Comte. By George Henry Lewes. Third Edition. Two vols. London: Longmans.

In closing our lengthy notice of the "History of Philosophy," we cannot withhold a word of praise from some of the biographies, particularly those contained in the second volume. Readers who care little for the champion of Nominalism will find no small interest in the graphic picture drawn by Mr. Lewes of the vain and selfish Abelard, the devoted, unselfish Heloise; while all who can appreciate the highest moral greatness, combined with a creed which most writers prefer to condemn than to understand, will find a rare delight in the newly-written biography, told at some length, of Spinoza. These volumes form a solid addition to the philosophical literature of our country. We could for ourselves have wished that the subject had been viewed as pointing a different moral than that of the inutility of metaphysical inquiry,—a lesson that the English mind is only too ready of itself to learn. But every author must write from the stand-point which he believes alone to be true; and it is not the least merit in the "History" that it breathes throughout a spirit of the most fearless thought, the most profound conviction, and a perfect confidence in the human intellect when following a true method and directed to its proper end.

SCOTCH DIVINITY-LECTURES.*

THEOLOGICAL professors are apt to treat the views of infidel opponents in one of three ways. With some it is the fashion to talk of writers like Strauss and Rénan in terms of contempt, as though their theories were stale, trifling, or self-destructive, not requiring any fresh refutation, because they had been fully answered before. Wiser teachers do not flatter themselves with any such illusions about the inherent weakness of modern scepticism; on the contrary, they are so profoundly impressed with the dangerous vitality and spreading influence of such opinions that, in their eagerness to reply, they rush into denunciation rather than argument. They imagine that by a passionate reassertion of traditional beliefs, by rhetorical descriptions of all that a hearty acceptance of such beliefs has done for humanity, and by ascribing infidelity either to intellectual pride or moral deficiencies, they have adequately fortified the minds of their hearers against the latest assaults on orthodox Christianity. To neither of these classes of professors does the author of the volume before us belong. He is, on the contrary, a fine example of those best and wisest teachers who, discerning the signs of the times, apply themselves to the most exact study of the leading scepticisms that chiefly influence the minds of the young generation, and who, with scarce a word of reproach, but with the fullest confidence in their cause, analyze the entire system of their opponents, tracing it up to its first principles and down to its last results, and then challenge their hearers to decide whether, for such a "new Gospel" as this, they are prepared to surrender the creed of eighteen centuries or more. Of course, such a mode of treatment demands a clear head, a calm spirit, a just and logical understanding, a firm standpoint of its own, and many rare qualifications beside; but Scotchmen have some of these by nature. Their theology is often dry, and sometimes narrow; but it is seldom, if ever, illogical, and usually bears the stamp of that philosophical training which plays a far more important part in the Scotch than in the English universities.

Dr. Robert Macpherson, who died in 1865, held for many years the Chair of Divinity in the University of Aberdeen, and, by his excellent scholarship, erudite theology, earnest piety, and educational zeal, won a reputation and esteem from every party of the Scottish Church and people. He seems to have combined a deep love of truth with a spirit of toleration not always found in his countrymen. If this volume of his lectures be a fair specimen of what he was as a theological professor, we can only envy the University of which he so ably filled a most important Chair, wishing at the same time that the corresponding posts in our English universities were always occupied by men of such wide minds and philosophical temperaments as the theologian of Aberdeen.

The first ten lectures published in this volume were delivered by the author to his class of students in divinity, and their titles of themselves show the philosophical and comprehensive view entertained by the Professor of his subject. Two excellent lectures on the "Existence of God" treat the question from a purely modern point of view, and in connection with those metaphysical theories with which many theological problems are inseparably intertwined. We never heard a Regius Professor of Divinity in Oxford address his hearers as persons who must make up their minds on certain fundamental propositions in metaphysics, if they are to have clear and consistent conceptions of the Deity. But Dr. Macpherson does not hesitate to explain to his more speculative pupils that atheism is the natural growth of a materialistic philosophy and, consequently, that if they would thoroughly meet the sophistries of atheism, they must take a decided stand on the great principle of the distinction between mind and matter, the positive belief in a supreme and personal mind resting only on the existence, given in consciousness, of our own living, intelligent, and personal being. We merely mention this to show the style in which our author handles his subject, every page being instinct with fresh modern feeling and thought, and every question in theology being viewed, not as an isolated article of faith, but linked with its cognate branches of knowledge and thought. At the same time this is not the most original or the most valuable portion of

Dr. Macpherson's work. The latter half of the present volume consists of an examination of Strauss's speculations on our Lord's Resurrection, which the Professor had entered into during the last year of his life, with a view to publish its results when completed. Death interrupted the finishing of his design, but the five lectures given in this volume are sufficient proof that the author was quite equal to his work. His acute and penetrating mind is a match for the keen logic and searching criticism of the ablest of modern unbelievers. He never loses his temper; he never misses the true point at issue; he never overstates the case for the orthodox view; he rarely, if ever, disguises or evades a real difficulty in the Bible; no one, we are convinced, can peruse these pages of the Aberdeen Professor without acknowledging that he has discovered numerous flaws in Strauss's assertions and reasonings, while he has traced his unbelief to what we are convinced is its true source—a science that will not recognise a single departure from law, a philosophy that ignores all but the visible, the mutable, and the material. Such a science and such a philosophy cannot co-exist with the belief in a Bible that reveals God, spirit, immortality, and the like. Therefore the testimony of the latter must, in one way or another, be overthrown; contradictions must be established where only differences exist; facts must be proved to be the ghostly offspring of ideas; eye-witness must be the fancy of over-excited minds; objective appearances become subjective illusions, and so on; in a word, that the new philosophy may triumph, the old religion must give way, and St. John and St. Paul must be sacrificed to Strauss and the intellectual exigencies of the nineteenth century. A certain eminent sceptic is said to have lately declared that "if he could only convince himself of the historic certainty of our Lord's resurrection, he should be a happy man from that very hour." If we mistake not, it would take a great deal to convince the author of that sentiment; but if, by way of preparing himself for such a conviction, he will peruse these pages of Dr. Macpherson's, we suspect he may at least come to the conclusion that if the history of the Gospel narrative be weak, the logic of its adversaries is weaker still.

NEW NOVELS.*

THE "Adventures of an Arcot Rupee" contains some very interesting sketches of Indian life, but the thread of fiction which runs through the volumes and connects the several incidents is so slender that we are almost inclined to regret the form in which Major Kirby has presented his work to the public. Although the book comprises a great deal so purely local in its character as to be without interest for any one outside Anglo-Indian society, yet there is much concerning the East which would well repay attention if it appeared distinct from the plot of the novel with which it is now incorporated. With the mere novel reader, however, who seeks to while away an hour or two, we fear the book will be a disappointment, and be held in far less esteem than very inferior productions. The plot is a purely military one; nearly all the characters, the ladies excepted, are in the army, and even they are either soldiers' daughters or become soldiers' wives. The heroine, Alice Peyton, is the daughter of Colonel Peyton, of the Company's service, a fine type of an old soldier. She has three admirers, an officer named Arlington; another officer, Captain Hackle; and a civilian of mature years and unpleasant disposition, Mr. Vanderputt. Captain Hackle proposes, and is rejected in consequence of the lady's preference for Mr. Arlington. One of those quarrels for which Anglo-Indian society seems to offer so many facilities then ensues between the officers, and a meeting is arranged, which terminates unfavourably for Mr. Arlington, who falls dangerously wounded. The men, however, soon become excellent friends, and Mr. Arlington has an opportunity of saving his rival from the attack of a panther, who appears to have been possessed of more than ordinary ferocity, if we are to form any conclusion from the number of sword-cuts he received on the head before he was driven away from his victim. The next adventure in which Mr. Arlington takes part is of a more gratifying description. A band of ruffians have broken into and robbed the house of Colonel Peyton, leaving the Colonel disabled by a wound in the leg, and carrying off Alice, whom they have dragged from her bed. Just as they are making their escape Arlington comes to the rescue, routs the captors with severe loss, and restores the lady to her father. He is rewarded by the hand of Alice, and we afterwards have him pursuing a very distinguished military career under General Wellesley, and performing glorious feats in the battle of Assaye, and in the skirmishes which followed the mutiny of Mysore. Captain Hackle, who has also fought bravely in the same engagement, and is saved from dying of his wounds by the affectionate care of Arlington, conquers his passion for Alice Peyton, and transfers his affections to her friend, Miss Mansfield. In a speech which occupies at least four pages of print, and must have taken an unusually long time in its delivery, he declares his love for the lady, is accepted, and returns to England and lives happily. We cannot part with "The Adventures of an Arcot Rupee" without bearing testimony to the shrewdness which the author displays in dealing with many questions relating

* The Adventures of an Arcot Rupee. By Major Charles F. Kirby, Retired List, Madras Army. London: Saunders, Otley, & Co.

A Golden Heart: A Novel. By Tom Hood. Three vols. London: Tinsley Brothers.

Until the End: A Story of Real Life. By John Pomeroy, Author of "Raising the Veil," "Opposite Neighbours," &c. One vol. London: Charles W. Wood.

* The Resurrection of Jesus Christ. With an Examination of the Speculations of Strauss in his "New Life of Jesus." By the late Robert Macpherson, D.D., Professor of Theology in the University of Aberdeen. Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons.

to Indian affairs, and to the spirit and dash with which some of the descriptions are written. We are unable, however, to refrain from observing that there is much introduced which would be out of place anywhere, and is a positive disfigurement in a work like the present. There are long discussions in council which are about nothing, and lead to nothing. Miss Peyton is made to plague us with her views upon a variety of subjects, and her impressions of the voyage out, and we are called upon to peruse page upon page detailing the conversations of military men, which may very fairly represent what warriors are in the habit of saying to one another, but contain nevertheless very little that is either instructive or entertaining.

Mr. Tom Hood's novel is one of those productions which require on the part of the reviewer considerable care in the selection of a standard by which he can test the book. To look at "A Golden Heart" in the light of that criticism which is applied to works pretending to a place in literature would be a mere unkindness to the author and profitable to nobody. If, however, it is permitted to take its place amongst that class of writings which revel in villany of the darkest type and love of the fieriest order, and which make up for dull dialogue by startling and unnatural incidents, it has no reason to fear comparison with the best or worst of them. The principal villain of the story, Captain Cormack, is of a kind for whom we hope nobody will think of finding an equal in the whole range of fiction. He is a person of mysterious antecedents, bad character, and a seemingly unconquerable habit of talking his evil designs over to himself and making no secret of them to his conscience. He purchases a partnership in the business of a Cornish manufacturer, Mr. Carlyon, and in a short time secures the ruin of his partner, whom he supplies with poison that he may commit suicide. The captain then turns Mr. Carlyon's two daughters, Marian and Alice, out upon the world penniless and to seek a living as governesses. Others now appear upon the scene to take Cormack's place, and supply it very effectually. Mr. and Mrs. Orr, into whose family Marian enters, adopt a system of persistent harshness towards her that is the very perfection of atrocity. At length, when she is lying dangerously ill, they make various unfair deductions from her salary, give her the balance, and place her in a cab, leaving her destination to be settled by the caprice of the cabman. This worthy maintains the heartlessness necessary to the development of the plot. He hands over Marian's luggage to a Jew "fence," and, assisted by a policeman, who ably contributes to the general brutality, drives the poor girl herself to a workhouse. The other sister Alice is attended by no better fortune. She becomes governess to the family of Lord Lacquoigne, and finds in Lady Lacquoigne a refined counterpart of Mrs. Orr, but as her pupils are well disposed towards her, she is fairly comfortable until the appearance upon the scene of the Honourable Henry Vorian, Lord Lacquoigne's son. This gentleman returns home invalided from the effects of wounds he received in the battle of Inkerman, where Mr. Hood has him distinguish himself in a manner that shows a sad disregard of the value of human life.

"The battalion of Fusiliers to which the Honourable Henry Vorian is attached extends on the left of the battery. There is no fear in the lad's heart as he unsheathes his maiden sword and looks steadily at the advancing foe. He thinks of his stately mother at home, of the careworn face of his father, of old school-days and school-mates, of the pleasant park of Beaudechet.

"And then further down the line there is the clink of engaging bayonets. In another moment the fight has rushed up to where he is, and he is cheering on his men, and busy, cut and parry, with a youngster about his own age, who is leading the Russians.

"Two lads! One would have liked to see them playing a match at billiards, or scuffling for prizes, or boxing to prove best men [of two?]—but crossing swords, thirsting for each other's blood! War may be very noble, and I own that when I am speaking of it in a broad way, describing the onset of army upon army, it makes my blood gallop—but when one thinks of such individual encounters it chills the healthy pulses, and makes one shudder.

"There was no long contest between these two lads. Neither knew much of the art of killing. They slashed viciously, and parried vigorously, and a skilled swordsman would have finished either of them in two seconds. But a dogged, dark, beetle-browed private, in Captain Mustakot's regiment, seeing his young officer did not kill off his man at once, made a sturdy thrust at the young Englishman's breast. But before the bayonet reached him, Captain Vorian was lying flat on his back, with his eyes fixed on vacancy, and his arm shattered at the shoulder.

"A spent shot bounding up the slope had bowled him over. His young enemy, almost carried forward by the weight of a ferocious cut he was making in seven, ran on the bayonet of Private McDonald, who, seeing his officer beset by odds, was coming up to support him, and plunged his weapon into the Russian officer's throat; whereupon he and the Russian private came to such close quarters that neither could use his bayonet. So they fastened a grip and went down on the top of the two boys, trying for grim death to throttle each other.

"And, to judge from their earnestness and determination, they might have gone on trying to throttle each other to this day, had not another cannon-ball, coming with easy bounds up the slope, knocked them both into space."

Henry is nursed by Alice, and, after having secured her affections, he vows eternal constancy, gives her a written promise of marriage, and assures her that there will be no difficulty in getting his father's consent to their union. In this, however, he is disappointed; for as soon as he had declared the state of his affections to his father, that nobleman gives him to understand that he must abandon Alice, and marry the wealthy daughter of Mr. Orr. The Lacquoignes have

some difficulty in borrowing the amount of Alice's salary, but immediately they obtain it, they turn her out of doors. Alice, who searches in vain for her sister, now finds herself quite friendless, and surrounded on all sides by villany. Captain Cormack reappears, and succeeds by a series of well-arranged plans in getting her expelled from the dressmaker's shop where she was working, and out of the house in which she had lodged. We do not care to pursue her career after this point, but it may be gathered from the circumstance of Marian discovering her, some years afterwards, in the act of throwing herself over Waterloo Bridge. Villany having now worked itself out, retribution comes; and we must admit that Mr. Hood is as unsparing in awarding punishment as he is in describing crime. Mr. Orr's daughter marries Henry Vorian, but elopes with a professed gambler, who afterwards deserts her, and leaves her to starve in France, and Henry himself is drowned whilst attempting to rescue the passengers of a shipwrecked vessel. This incident, by the way, looks very like a re-edited and unimproved version of the newspaper account of the Calais lifeboat accident of last winter. Mr. Orr is tried for forgery, and convicted, and Cormack meets his death in the fall of an engine-house. As a story merely we have very little doubt that "A Golden Heart" will be quite as interesting as most of the novels which cover the shelves of circulating libraries at watering-places, and help idle young ladies to kill time; but we think when Mr. Hood aspires beyond this, he is not so successful. His descriptions, for instance, of the delays and indifference to which inventors have to submit at the hands of officials in this country, although written with an honesty and earnestness which are creditable, stand very poorly by the side of that sarcasm with which greater writers have assailed the abuse.

"Until the End" is a story given apparently in payment of a debt of gratitude. The narrator, Paul Rinaldi, an Italian, is under heavy obligations of kindness to Sir John P—, of Clones Castle, Ireland, and hearing that the story of his life would afford amusement to his benefactor, "his family, and his little girl," he proceeds to unfold it. We don't know what notions of amusement the Irish knight or baronet may have, but as far as the rest of the world are concerned, if productions like "Until the End" contribute to his happiness, and that of his little girl, there can be no possible objection to his securing a monopoly in them. The story of Paul Rinaldi is not confined to his own achievements. It embraces the history of his immediate ancestors, the acts of a numerous family of brothers and sisters, a large gathering of friends, and a wide circle of acquaintances. The author, however, has some regard for the feelings of his readers, and although he does crowd a number of characters upon their attention at the same time, he hurries many of them out of the world with praiseworthy celerity. The narrator's sister Regina, so named for her Madonna-like beauty, helps to support her family as a model, marries an English medical man named Scott, and gets drowned. Her brother Giacomo for a time forces himself upon our attention with a bad cough and the other usual signs of consumption, and dies. A third brother takes to the study of the law and turns out to be a most abominable scamp. Paul Rinaldi, the narrator, marries the sister of Dr. Scott, and has a daughter who falls out of a window and gets killed. A certain Lord Bachard then presents himself, and dies, leaving Paul Rinaldi miserable in consequence of the disclosure that Jane Scott, to whom Paul had been married, was his deceased lordship's wife. There are a number of other personages introduced, but we really have no space in which to follow them to their graves. We may, however, mention that, among those we left surviving, are Giulio Panizzi, who appears first at Vauxhall as a pyrotechnist, and afterwards in the provinces as an organ-grinder; his daughter Giga, an opera dancer, and Mr. Wilson Roberts, an American. If any of our readers are interested in the fortunes of these people, they had better try to reach the end of Mr. Pomeroy's book themselves—we attempted it and failed.

THE LATE PRINCE CONSORT.*

(CONCLUDING NOTICE)

THE marriage of the Queen with Prince Albert was regarded in England with some critical misgivings, and was in the House of Commons made the subject of a heated discussion. The courtship of Prince Albert was not altogether devoid of those troubles and anxieties which disturb the love passages of ordinary couples. The position of the prospected husband under such exceptional circumstances is peculiar and almost disagreeable. The Queen here tells us how she had to come forward and declare her choice:—

"The Queen cannot now think without indignation against herself of her wish to keep the Prince waiting for probably three or four years, at the risk of ruining all his prospects for life, until she might feel inclined to marry! And the Prince has since told her that he came over in 1839 with the intention of telling her that, if she could not then make up her mind, she must understand that he could not now wait for a decision, as he had done at a former period when the marriage was first talked about. The only excuse the Queen can make for herself is in the fact that the sudden change from the secluded life at Kensington to her independent position as Queen Regnant, at the age of eighteen, put all ideas of marriage out of her mind, which she now most bitterly repents. A worse school for a young girl, or one more detrimental to all natural feelings and affections, cannot well be

* The Early Years of his Royal Highness the Prince Consort. Compiled, under the direction of her Majesty the Queen, by Lieutenant-General the Hon. C. Grey. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

imagined than the position of a Queen at eighteen, without experience, and without a husband to guide and support her. This the Queen can state from painful experience, and she thanks God that none of her dear daughters are exposed to such danger."

At one time she wanted the union to be postponed for four years, and she now expresses her regret for this resolution. The Prince felt that the delay would be most unpleasant for him; and high as was the honour paid him by the Queen's hand, we learn that he almost dreaded a fate which brought with it so many embarrassments and perplexities. The Whigs were in favour of the match; the Tories opposed the proposal for an annuity of £50,000 successfully, Lord Melbourne having brought forward the motion without previously consulting his colleagues. The Queen did not like the Tories, and confesses that she was at this period a partisan. Lord Melbourne, however, who was a statesman of generous and lofty instincts, endeavoured to abate this feeling. Lord Melbourne is recorded to have spoken of the Prince "with tears in his eyes," and the Queen was advised by him to hold out the olive-branch a little to her State opponents. Prince Albert himself never sided one way or another. He certainly must have heard plain, and very plain truths spoken while the haggling went on over his income, and it redounds to his temper and discrimination that during his after-life he never seemed to retain any feeling which might naturally be engendered by such a course of procedure. General Grey notes how he "sank his individual existence in that of the Queen."

"There were some, undoubtedly, who would gladly have seen his conduct the reverse of all this, with whom he would have been more popular had he shared habitually and indiscriminately in the gaieties of the fashionable world—had he been a regular attendant at the race-course—had he, in short, imitated the free lives, and even, it must be said, the vices of former generations of the Royal family. But the country generally knew how to estimate and admire the beauty of domestic life, beyond reproach, or the possibility of reproach, of which the Queen and he set so noble an example. It is this which has been the glory and the strength of the Throne in our day, and which has won for the English Court the love and veneration of the British people, and the respect of the world. Above all, he has set an example for his children, from which they may be sure they can never deviate without falling in public estimation, and running the risk of undoing the work which he has been so instrumental in accomplishing."

For many more interesting details we must refer those of our readers who can thoroughly appreciate such matters to the book itself. The moral to be drawn from this memoir, and which can be drawn now as well as at the conclusion of the work, is—that duty may be so made the rule of a life as to make that life great and worthy. The Prince Consort was not a man of genius. It is doubtful whether he would have made a good soldier or a good sailor, but unquestionably he was to the Queen an excellent husband. His education was finished and graceful, and he profited by his teachers, not only those from whom he acquired classics, but by those to whom he went for instruction in music and drawing. He set an example of usefulness to his children. He was self-denying and temperate. Though he did not like London, he never hesitated to remain in London when he thought he ought to be there. He preferred Windsor or Scotland, but he never allowed his partialities to get the better of his fine sense of duty. His appearance won friends for him, and his manners secured them. If the Prince of Wales follows in his steps, he cannot fail to gain the respect and affection of the country which he is destined to rule. Nations are becoming exacting towards princes. The typical prince of olden days—who could spend his time gambling, debauching women, drinking, and leading the fashion of a new hat or a new coat—would not be tolerated a twelvemonth. Royalty, like property, has its duties as well as its rights; and in the Prince Consort our future king must recognise the force and value of a life devoted to the worthiest principles and deeds.

CATHOLIC PSYCHOLOGY.*

At a time when metaphysics are going out of fashion from the belief that no certain truth can be attained in this domain of inquiry, the author of the little volume before us hopes to reconcile a despairing world to the neglected philosophy which appears to him alone capable of remedying the infidelity, scepticism, and blindness of the nineteenth century. One branch, however, of metaphysics, as the word is commonly understood, Mr. Hart has no sympathy or regard for. Ontology he puts aside as a science of shadows, dismissing the consideration of it in a chapter consisting of exactly twelve lines. But Psychology—the other branch of metaphysical speculation, as we have been accustomed to view it, though our author curiously represents metaphysics "as merely a part of psychology"—claims with him the pre-eminence in the field of science, ordering, arranging, and classifying the facts drawn from other sciences, probing the depths of nature to generalize her laws, "summing up the total amount of all science, comprising all the laws of man's intellectual, social, moral, physical, and religious state, embracing all his interests, his happiness, and his future destiny." A science with so majestic a compass and sweep of inquiry Mr. Hart deems worthy of the name of "Catholic," because it appears to comprehend everything and to concern everybody. Happily, the dimensions of the book are not proportionate to the

conception of its subject, but the author informs us that it is only the pioneer of a larger work, in which he proposes to treat at much greater length the doctrines sketched lightly in the present manual.

We could wish that Mr. Hart had been disposed to abide by the usually recognised boundaries of science in general, and his own subject in particular. As it is, we scarcely know where we are in reading his pages. Since he begins by identifying Psychology with mental philosophy, we expected to travel over a great deal of ground which did not belong strictly to his province of inquiry. But we were scarcely prepared to come across a description of the constitution of the United States of America, or a discussion as to what political circumstances afford a justification for rebellion. Our author would have done well to fix definitely in his mind the true nature and strict limits of Psychology, and by what differences it is separated from ethics, logic, politics, æsthetics, and the rest. Sciences that do border very closely on psychological inquiry, such as biology, physiology, phrenology, Mr. Hart has not even noticed; while ethics, which, by the way, he derives from *êthos* (in our school-days we should have said *îthos*), have a chapter devoted to them, yet, without any intimation as to where the point of contact between the two sciences lies. Similarly there are sundry discussions of logical and political questions introduced, which, it seems to us, have but a very distant connection with the true subjects of Psychology, and, at all events, have no place in what pretends only to be a manual for young students in philosophy.

Moreover, just as Mr. Hart seems to make Psychology the one science, so he makes Consciousness its one key to solve all problems alike touching this world and the next. There seems positively to be no single truth that cannot be learned from Consciousness; the existence of God, the decision between good and evil, the conviction of immortality, the necessity of axioms—these and much beside are derived solely from Consciousness. It is the one criterion of all philosophy; its testimony is unerring in all that regards mind; it is to the philosopher what the Bible is to the theologian, "the one the book of God, the other the book of the mind" (according to our author's not very intelligible antithesis). We could add from Mr. Hart's pages many other passages, which seem to invest Consciousness with a dignity and influence far beyond that which it has ever received from the most devout Intuitionists. Yet he is not always consistent, it appears to us, even in his estimate of this faculty. In his introduction he informs us that "from Reason, when taken alone, we derive nothing but abstractions; from Consciousness alone we get nothing but sensations which pass away into oblivion; but that when Consciousness unites with Reason, they substantiate being in the soul, and existence in the creation; they realize cause and effect, and give birth to truth." We have read many views of the genesis of truth, but we must say, if we understand our author right, that his theory of its origin from the union of abstractions and sensations is the least satisfactory, if it be not altogether unintelligible. Before Mr. Hart issues his larger work, he will do well to examine more minutely the nature, functions, and limits of the faculty (if it be a faculty) of Consciousness,—at any rate to ask himself how, on his theory of its infallibility, he accounts for the variety and sometimes contradictoriness of its deliverances; by what test he proposes to decide in favour of the data of Consciousness derived by one thinker as against those derived by another; and, finally, in what way he would explain the rejection of Consciousness altogether by the latest and ablest school of philosophers as a trustworthy testimony to the truths of Psychology, which Mr. Bain and his disciples prefer to investigate by an entirely different and less indecisive method.

It must not, however, be supposed that Mr. Hart is ignorant of the great writers upon his subject. We often trace a tolerably familiar acquaintance with Sir W. Hamilton's works; but we suspect that our author reads, as he thinks, without system, or reference to the age and point of view, in and under which his favourite authors speculated and wrote. Aristotle and Augustine, Plato and Thomas Aquinas, Simplicius and Marcus Antoninus, are cited as infallible testimonies, and their definitions are made to fit into modern ways of thought and expression, after a very awkward fashion. Sometimes quotations are paraded in proof of assertions that no sane person would dream of questioning, e.g., that "man is an intelligence united to a body and served by organs" is a proposition that scarcely required support from such queer testimony, over and above Plato's and Seneca's, as that of "Manilius" and "Ovidius"! Still, to all his faults, it cannot be added that the author wrote merely for making a book; he has convictions, and an earnestness that impels him to publish them; he tells us in his preface that he has employed many years in ascertaining the principles of natural and revealed truth, and is desirous of expanding and simplifying them for the benefit of his age. If our sceptical and stiff-necked generation is not profited by "Catholic Psychology," it will be because the author was better qualified by heart than head to become its teacher.

THE SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS.

THE opening article of the *Geological Magazine* shows us Mr. Ruskin, returned to his late hobby, the investigation of rock-structure. The paper is styled "On Banded and Brecciated Concretions," and is certainly something more than the composition of a thoughtless amateur. Mr. Ruskin is thoroughly in earnest when he enters upon a subject of study, and, in the present instance, though still a little dogmatic, he is less so than usual, and evidently is as desirous of

* Catholic Psychology; or, the Philosophy of the Human Mind. Simplified and Systematized from the most approved Authors. By A. J. X. Hart, Esq. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.

eliciting information from geologists as of expressing his own opinion. The mode of origin of brecciate formations is indeed a tough problem, and can hardly yet be looked upon as solved. In saying this, we would include Mr. Ruskin's efforts at solution. We cannot give our readers an abstract of the paper, but we would ask them to read it for themselves, and we promise them some very hard geological nuts to crack, should they adopt our suggestion. The plate displays some instructive sections, and is remarkably well executed. Messrs. Kirby and Young's contribution on "The Remains of *Chiton* and *Chitonellus* from the Carboniferous Strata of Yorkshire and West Scotland" has a certain palæontological importance, but is of no general interest. Under the head of "Kitchen-Middens on the Great Ormeshead" we find a note by the Rev. T. G. Bonney, M.A., which should be read by tourists intending to visit North Wales. The excitement anent pre-historic man has certainly abated, but still kitchen-middens are always attractive objects for the archaeologist, and if Mr. Bonney be not mistaken, some very fine specimens may be seen near Llandudno. Mr. Bonney gives a section of the cliff of Conway Bay, from which we see that there are the following layers:—(1) soil; (2) a thin seam of shells, chiefly periwinkles; (3) dark soil; (4) a thin layer of shells, principally limpets; (5) dark soil; (6) grey soil, with limpets above and mussels below; (7) limestone gravel; (8) reddish clay; (9) about four feet of clay; and (10) the seashore. If we gather correctly Mr. Bonney's meaning, No. 4 represents the midden, as he found in it not only the shells mentioned, but the following bones:—"The left tibia of a small deer, probably the roebuck; a fragment of the femur of a bird, a fragment like a bird's bone in form and in medullary cavity, and as large as the tibia of a swan; and, finally, the teeth of a lamb or young roebuck." We must confess that Mr. Bonney's diagnosis strikes us as being extremely vague. The question of the age of the deposit is, to a certain extent, based on the character of the animal remains, and when the determination of these is so very general as to leave it undecided whether certain teeth are those of a lamb or a roebuck, we cannot place much reliance upon Mr. Bonney's observations. Mr. Wynne's short communication on the valley of Glen-car, Sligo, is accompanied by drawings, and shows how vast has been the influence of denudation in this part of Ireland. The concluding article is by Mr. T. McK. Hughes, and relates to the geology of the Lake district. It is an attempt to settle the relations of certain portions of the Silurian system. Those who have studied Sir Roderick Murchison's opinions should read Mr. Hughes's paper. It is accompanied by numerous sections; and, though the most technical, is also the most valuable, contribution to the present number. Mr. Hughes's conclusion may be summed up in the words of Professor Sedgwick:—"On the evidence both of mineral structure and of fossils we are compelled to separate the Coniston flags from the Coniston limestone and calcareous slates, placing the former at the base of the upper Silurian series of the Lake district."

Herr Göppert contributes the first article to the *Journal of Botany*, and endeavours to show that the chronological sequence of fossil plants does not tend to support the Darwinian theory of the origin of species. He describes for the first time a very peculiar plant which was discovered some eighteen years ago by Dr. Jügel, of Hanover, and which he regards as occupying quite an isolated position in the list of extinct species. The specimen is well figured by Mr. Vincent Brooks, and is to be called *Aphyllostachys Jugleriana*, if the author's nomenclature be accepted. It consists of a number of fruit-spikes compressed and imperfectly preserved and arranged in circles, or whorls, as they are styled by botanists. "Each verticil (circle) contains eight or nine spikes, which are linear-cylindrical, and somewhat rounded towards the apex, 5 to 6 lines long, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 lines broad, narrowed below into a broadish longitudinally striated, evidently somewhat compressed, short peduncle." When he gave it its name *Aphyllostachys*, Herr Göppert was under the impression that the fruit capsules were without leaves. Now, however, he finds that leaves are present in these localities. He calls attention to the plant in order that those who have studied fossil plants more than he has done, may be able to refer it to its proper place. It recalls the appearance of the fruit-spikes of several coal-plants of the *Calamaria* family, but it differs materially from all known forms. Few palæontologists have so extensive an acquaintance with fossil plants as Professor Göppert, and unless Dr. Hooker or Mr. Carruthers can settle the difficulty, we fear the problem of this plant's affinities must remain unsolved. Mr. Bennett's "Report on the Botanical Department of the British Museum" proves that the officials have little time for idleness, and that in this respect the British Museum contrasts favourably with some of the Government offices. Summing up the various collections examined during the year, we perceive that no less than 15,000 different species have been received, arranged, and classified. We note, too, with pleasure that the collection of diatoms of the late Dr. Greville and Dr. Gregory have been added to the Museum, and that they include no less than 5,000 microscopic slides of these beautiful vegetable forms. Dr. F. Mueller, of the Melbourne Botanic Gardens, describes a new species of groundsel, which was discovered at Grahamstown, S. Africa, by Mr. P. M'OWan, of Shaw College. He styles it *Senecio tropæolifolius*. The distribution of the groundsel is more extensive than that of any other known genus, *Senecios* being found in abundance in almost all quarters of the globe except North Australia. We think, however, something might be done to diminish the number of species. A genus which contains nearly a thousand species must display a range of forms which should justify its division into other genera. The remaining papers are more of special than general interest.

The *Intellectual Observer* gives us a curious paper by Mr. Procter, on "Star Streams," in which, while the chief facts connected with the phenomenon of the milky way are clearly stated, an effort is made by the author to show that the tendency of stars to aggregate into streams is not a merely "fanciful scheme," but is the result of the operation of a law. Of this law he gives the following as a possible illustration:—"In soapy water left in a basin after washing there will often be noticed a tendency to the formation of spiral whorls on the surface. In other cases, there may be no spirality, but still a ten-

dency to stream-formation. Now, in this case, it is easy to see that the curved bottom of the basin has assisted to generate streams in the water, either circulating in one direction or opposing and modifying each other's effects according to the accidental character of the disturbance given to the water in the process of washing. Here, of course, there can be no doubt of the cause of the observed phenomena; and I believe that in every case in which even a single marked stream is seen in any congeries of spots or points, a little consideration will suggest a regulating cause to which the peculiarity may be referred." "Japan and its Currency" is an article by Mr. J. Newton, upon the Japanese coinage and the proposed new mint which the Tycoon is about to establish. The Rev. J. M. Berkeley's paper on the "Fungi of the Plains of India" gives descriptions of five species which will be new to most fungologists. Mr. Berkeley states that the subject of Indian fungi has received little attention from botanists, yet it is a wide field and one which affords abundant opportunities for the enthusiastic student. "A Visit to Glen Clova—its Geology and Fertility" is a pleasantly-written discursive account of the scenery and natural history of one of the most picturesque spots in the "Grampian Hills." "The Origin of the Cheddar Cliffs" is a good geological contribution, by Mr. D. Mackintosh. The editorial matter concludes an excellent number of this periodical.

In the *Edinburgh Medical Journal* the scientific or medical reader will find an article which demonstrates the application of discoveries in physical science to the art of medicine. It is on the treatment of aneurism by electrolysis, and its authors, Drs. John Duncan and Robert Fraser, show very conclusively what a useful therapeutic agent galvanism is when employed by the skilled physician. The other communications are of a more thoroughly professional character.

SHORT NOTICES.

ALTHOUGH the *Broadway* was ushered in with a prospectus which, for the sake of English literature, we trust was of American design and composition, we find the first number brisk, entertaining, and clever. Mr. Buchanan's poem is worthy of a true poet, and if people only buy the *Broadway* to read it, they will have bought a pearl of price at a very low figure indeed. Mr. W. C. Russell, a new writer, displays considerable promise in a vigorous essay on Bryant. The author of the "Gentle Life" contributes a paper on "Falling in Love," which treats a rather worn-out theme with grace and ability. The rest of the matter is of the usual magazine character. The leading story, "Brakespeare," does not advance sufficiently far to enable us to form any opinion of it one way or another. We are not sorry, however, to find a revival of the good old hard-hitting knight romance. The young world, at least, will not willingly let it die, and the author of "Guy Livingstone" appears to have sufficient power to reanimate the forms of those whose swords are rust. Let him 'ware "Otto, the Archering," however. Periodicals are starting so closely on the heels of each other, that we shall shortly have to devote a special column to new magazines.

Gowland's Guide to Paris. (Hamilton, Adams, & Co.)—This is a convenient and reliable guide. It supplies a few pages of French words for common use, which the tourist is supposed to master while on the journey; and under the head of useful sentences we find most of the primitive requirements translated into the French tongue for the English visitor. Places of amusement and the various churches are all set down in the regular orthodox fashion. The guide includes an excellent map, which is at once simple and portable.

The Knapsack Guide for Travellers in Tyrol and the Eastern Alps, illustrated with Maps and Plans. (John Murray.)—We do not think we can say more in commendation of this book than that it is well entitled to a position among those guide-books of Mr. Murray which are deservedly held in such high esteem. "The Knapsack Guide to the Tyrol" is just of that size which a pedestrian anxious not to encumber himself with too much luggage will appreciate. It will easily fit into any pocket, and contains an amount of information that is really marvellous. In addition to two excellent route maps having the roads clearly marked, and containing reference numbers which serve as an index to the general contents, there are some very fairly drawn pictorial illustrations of the more remarkable mountain forms.

The Science of the Weather. In a series of letters and essays by several authors, edited by "B." (Glasgow: W. P. Laidlaw.)—Although there is nothing very new or very remarkable about this little book, it will be found somewhat entertaining. It would be of use to men, and those who go down to the sea in yachts. The planetary and meteoric influences upon the weather are dwelt upon at considerable length, the principles of the late Admiral Fitzroy are very ably criticised, and a journal of "atmospheric phenomena" is appended, which would be of service if "B." only distinctly indicated the weather laws which he attempts to derive from the crude data of undigested facts.

We have also received:—*Notes on the Geometry of the Plane Triangle*, by John Griffiths, M.A. (James Parker & Co.);—*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the United Diocese of Kilmore, Elphin, and Ardagh, at the Visitation in Cavan, Longford, and Elphin, by Hamilton Verschoyle, D.D., Bishop of Kilmore (Hodges & Co.)*;—*Austria a Constitutional State* (Dulau & Co.);—*A Suggestion for a British Decimal Currency and Decimal System of Accounts, the Integral Unit being One Pound Sterling, value Forty Shillings*, by C. A. Manning (Smith, Elder, & Co.);—*Address at the Anniversary Meeting of the Royal Geographical Society*, by Sir Roderick Murchison, Bart. K.C.B., G.C. St. A. and St. S., D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., &c., Director-General, Geological Survey-President;—No. IV. *The Englishwoman's Review, a Journal of Woman's Work* (Kent & Co.);—*A Historical and Critical Commentary on the Old Testament, with a New Translation*, by M. M. Kalisch, Phil.Doc., M.A. (Longmans);—*Ante-Nicene Christian Library*, Vol. III., Tatian, Theophilus, and the Clementine Recognitions, and Vol. IV., Clement of Alexandria.

edited by the Rev. Alexander Roberts, D.D., and James Donald, LL.D. (T. & T. Clark);—*Auvergne, its Thermo-Mineral Springs, &c.*, by Robert Cross, M.D., &c. (Hardwicke);—*David, the King of Israel*, by F. W. Zimmacher, D.D. (T. & T. Clark);—*The Man of Sorrows* (Elliot Stock);—*Lost Links in the Indian Mutiny*, by H. P. Malet (Newby);—*White's First Latin Exercise Book* (Longmans);—*El Dorado, or British Guiana*, by the Rev. W. T. Veness (Cassell & Co.);—*The Milton Concordance*, by Charles D. Cleveland (S. Low & Co.);—*Vacation Rambles on the Continent*, by Olim Juvenis (Elliot Stock);—*Unhealthy Skin*, by Balmanno Squire, M.B., F.L.S. (Longmans);—*Events of England*, by M. R. C. (Longmans);—*Uncle Tom's Cabin* (Warne & Co.);—*The Vernons of Holly Mount*, by Maggie Symington (A. W. Bennett);—*Counsel and Cheer*, by the Rev. W. G. Blackie, D.D. (Strahan);—*Geschichte Roms* (Williams & Norgate);—*Belgian Volunteers' Visit to England*, by Frank Foster (Snow);—*Tracts for the Day*, No. 5, *The Real Presence* (Longmans);—*The Royal Commission and the Eucharistic Vestments*, by the Rev. T. T. Carter (Rivingtons);—*The Liturgy and Ritualism*, by Charles Thomas, Lord Archbishop of Canterbury (Rivingtons);—*The Case of the Established Church in Ireland*, by J. T. O'Brien (Rivingtons);—*The Teaching of the Holy Spirit, and the Communion of Saints*, by W. D. Bushell (Rivingtons);—*Bibliothèque Internationale Universelle* (A. Chaix et Cie.);—*The Colonial Church Chronicle* (Rivingtons);—*Sessional Papers of the Royal Institute of British Architects* (Parker);—*Hints for Whom they May Concern*, No. 2. *Capital Punishment* (Kitto);—*Railway Accidents and Collisions, their Effects upon the Nervous System*, by W. Camps, M.D. (Lewis);—*The World's Jubilee*, by William Hann (Marlborough);—No. IX. of *Part Music*, edited by John Hullah (Longmans);—*Handicraftsmen and Capitalists*, by H. H. Creed and W. Williams (Simpkin & Marshall);—*Human Nature*, No. V. (Burns);—*The Coal-Field of North Somersetshire*, by Seward W. Brice, B.A. (Bemrose & Lothian);—*Text-Book to the Turret and Tripod Systems of Captain C. P. Cole, R.N., C.B.*, as *Designed for Future Turret Navies*, by C. F. Henwood, Esq., naval architect, from the plans of Vice-Admiral Halsted, exhibitor British Annex, Class 66, No. 22, Paris, 1867;—*Charter, Bye-Laws, and Regulations of the Institution of Civil Engineers*;—*Report of the Salmon Fishery Congress*;—*Louis XVII.*, by his two eldest sons, William and Augustus Meves (H. & C. Barnard);—*The Cause of the Slade Boronetsy*, by Vincenzo di Zergolina (Hatton & Son);—*The Chess-Player's Magazine* for August (Adams & Francis).

LITERARY GOSSIP.

FRENCH journals are subject to a particular form of despotism, which is not precisely the despotism of the Government, although the Government sanctions and supports it, but which is perhaps as bad as any other form of annoyance. Their foreign telegraphic news is supplied to them by the Havas Agency, equivalent to the system established in this country by Mr. Reuter; but the French company enjoys a monopoly, is patronized by Government, and seems to consider itself at liberty to furnish whatever it pleases, while charging its own prices, and standing in the way of anything better. Some of the leading Paris papers, however, are now making a stand against this tyranny, and on Monday a meeting of editors was held at the house of M. Emile de Girardin, to concert measures whereby the evil may be remedied. At this meeting, "the speakers," says a report from Paris, "were unanimously of opinion that the Havas telegrams had been for years a disgrace to the French press. All the journals were in the habit of publishing, from one single agency patronized by Government, telegraphic news for which they paid a high price per line, and their contract compelled them to pay for whatever number of lines the agency chose to give them. The news was for the most part extremely insignificant, frequently incorrect, very often utterly unintelligible, and more often than not compiled from foreign newspapers of no authority, disfigured and served up under false dates." The agency refuses to furnish any evidence whatever of the origin of its despatches (which, it is suspected, are sometimes manufactured in Paris), and has recently added a clause to its contracts, expressly providing that it is never to be called on to show telegraphic receipts for its news. The Government, it appears, will not allow another agency to start, on the ground that it would have the character of a newspaper, and would therefore require an authorization. It is even asserted that private despatches sent at their own expense to particular journals have been temporarily intercepted by the authorities, and shown to the Havas agents, in order that they might first of all have the benefit of the news. Assuming these statements to be correct, we cannot be surprised that the Paris papers should rebel against such a system, and we are glad to find that they have appointed a committee to consider the whole question.

Alexandre Dumas the Younger is about to pay a visit to the United States, and he recently said in a letter that he was "ashamed to be obliged to confess that he does not know a single word of the language of Shakespeare." Hereupon the *New York Times* observes that it would be as well if, before starting for the New World, he were to take the trouble of learning that language. He probably has a theory, remarks the Transatlantic journalist, that all respectable Americans can speak French; whereas, though such is pretty generally the case in New York, the accomplishment is far from common in Boston, Newport, Philadelphia, Oberlin, and other places in America. Why should all these, it is asked, be put to the labour of learning French, when Dumas might learn English? "In the one case there would be (say) a million people who would have to learn a new language, and in the other case but one man—and he Dumas—would have to undertake such a task. We appeal to him, therefore, to give a little time—but a little time—to learning the 'language of Shakespeare.'" It might be as well, however, if the gentlemen of Boston, Newport, &c., were also to give a little time to learning French; but we must admit that the native vanity of our neighbours with regard to their tongue has been of late years pampered to an absurd degree by the diffusion of the knowledge of that language throughout Europe, until now they

seem to assume as a matter of right that every one is bound to understand their vernacular.

Some information touching the Shakespeares of Rowington—a branch of the family rendered illustrious by the great man of Stratford-on-Avon—is published in last Saturday's number of *Notes and Queries*, on the authority of certain documents recently discovered among the records of the Court of Star Chamber. Rowington is a village in Warwickshire, about nine or ten miles due north from Stratford; and there can be no doubt that the Shakespeares of the former place were related to those of the latter, though whether nearly or distantly is a moot question. The documents printed by our antiquarian contemporary unfold a rather interesting story of family feuds; but they throw no actual light on the ancestry or position of our great dramatist. They bear date 1618 (two years after the death of the poet), and the principal person concerned is a William Shakespeare. Mr. George Knight, of the Record Office, is the discoverer of the papers, the substance of which is communicated to the public by Mr. John Bruce.

The Archaeological Institute has been holding its annual meeting at Hull: its offshoot, the Archaeological Association, has at the same time been "in session" at Ludlow. The usual antiquarian papers have been read, the usual visits to interesting old places paid; and the latter body brought its proceedings to a close on Saturday night, although a supplementary meeting was arranged, to take place at Wroxeter, for the purpose of visiting the excavated remains of the ancient Roman city of Uriconium.

Principal Dawson, of McGill College, Montreal, has in the press a new edition of his "Acadian Geology," in which the information as to the geology of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, contained in the previous edition, will be brought up to the present date. There will also be additional chapters on Pre-historic Times in Acadia, on the Flora and Land Fauna of the Carboniferous and Devonian Periods, on the recent discovery of highly-fossiliferous Primordial Beds, and on the important deposits of Coal, Iron, and Gold, and the condition of mining industry in relation to them.

Mr. Jesse and Mr. Thoms have both published the "disownment," or excommunication, of Hannah Lightfoot, by the Quakers, to whose body she had belonged. Her offence was "entering into the state of marriage by a priest" with one not belonging to the Society of Friends. The name of the person with whom the marriage took place is not stated.

The Hon. Robert Curzon has presented to his fellow-members of the Roxburghe Club a volume entitled "Bokes of Nurture and Keruyng" (Serving). The *Athenæum* describes it as an edition in quarto of part of a volume on Manners and Meals in olden time, which has long been in preparation for the Early English Text Society, but which the narrow income of that body compels it to postpone till next year.

An afflicted American editor, who is troubled with hand-organs under his window, longs for the "evil days" mentioned in Ecclesiastes, when "the grinders shall cease because they are few," and "the sound of the grinding" shall be "low."

Among the contributions to the bazaar in aid of the famishing peasantry of Connemara, addressed to the office, 3, Cannon-row, Westminster, is a splendidly illustrated imperial 8vo. copy, with the author's autograph, of Count Montalembert's well-known "Life of Elizabeth of Hungary."

A new edition of Professor Haldemann's work on English Affixes is in the press, and it is stated that arrangements are being made to bring out the book at the same time here.

A curious discovery has just been made in the library of the House of Lords—viz., the original copy of the "Sealed Book of Common Prayer," which has long been missing.

Mr. J. W. Hales, late Fellow of Christ's Church, Cambridge, one of the editors of Bishop Percy's Folio Manuscript, has been appointed Professor of English Language and Literature at the Ladies' College, Bedford-square.

The *Court Journal* says:—"It is presumed the great favour the recently published 'Life of the Prince Consort' has met with will be the cause of the publication of the 'History of Balmoral' by the Prince. It is full of interesting matter, and sufficiently learned to cause a regret that it should be lost to the world in general."

Longfellow's manuscripts (says the *New York Home Journal*) are all written in lead-pencil upon large sheets of a good quality of book paper; each sheet contains never more than two four-line verses. The manuscript of his translation of Dante, if bound, would make several immense volumes.

August Boeckh, the veteran classical philologist and archaeologist, the Public Orator of Berlin University, and a man of great mark in the learned world, died last Saturday, in the eighty-second year of his age.

A literary copyright convention between France and the Papal States was signed at Rome on the 21st ult. by Cardinal Antonelli and the French Ambassador, Count de Sartiges.

Some fifty unpublished letters of Voltaire are said to have been discovered in Belgium by M. Philartète Chasles.

M. Guizot is at present engaged, at his residence of Val Richer, upon the third volume of his "Méditations Religieuses."

A volume of verse, entitled "Poems from the Greek Mythology, and Miscellaneous Poems," by Mr. Edmund Ollier, is about to be published by Mr. HOTTEN. It will consist of reprints (with additions and corrections) of poems that have already appeared in the *Athenæum*, *Household Words*, *All the Year Round*, &c.

Messrs. BLACKWOOD & SONS have in the press—"The Public Schools—Winchester, Westminster, Shrewsbury, Harrow, Rugby: Notes of their History and Traditions," by the Author of "Etoniana," 1 vol.; the concluding volumes of Count Montalembert's "History of the Monks of the West," authorized translation; a new edition, complete in 1 vol., of "Sir Brook Fossebrooke," by Charles Lever; a reprint of John Knox's "Liturgy and the Westminster Directory," carefully edited, with introduction and historical notes; and the "Sacred Poets of the Scottish Reformation and their Relation to those of Germany," by Professor Mitchell, St. Andrews.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Albert (Prince), Early Years of. 2nd edit. 8vo., 16s.
 Archie's Ambition. 18mo., 1s.
 Athlete for 1866. 2nd edit. Post 8vo., 2s.
 Baines (E.), History of the County Palatine and Duchy of Lancaster. New edit. 2 vols. 4to., £3. 13s. 6d.
 Book of Family Prayers in Words of Scripture. 12mo., 1s. 6d.
 Brierley (J.), Chronicles of Waverlow. New edit. 12mo., 1s.
 Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy. New edit. 8vo., 8s. 6d.
 Campbell (J. F.), Frost and Fire. New edit. 2 vols. 8vo., 21s.
 Carter (T. T.), Life of Sacrifice. 2nd edit. 8vo., 2s. 6d.
 Charlesworth (Miss), Sequel to Ministering Children. 16th edit. 12mo., 5s.
 Church's (The) Broken Unity: Irvingism and Presbyterianism. 12mo., 3s. 6d.
 Clark (H.), Letters Home from Spain, Algeria, and Brazil. 8vo., 7s. 6d.
 Cobbin's Bible Interpreter. New edit. 18mo., 1s. 6d.
 Colomba par Prosper Merimee. 12mo., 3s. 6d.
 Confucius' Life and Teachings. By James Legge. 8vo., 10s. 6d.
 Cooper (J. F.), Novels. New edit. Vol. II. Post 8vo., 2s. 6d.
 Crowdon's Little White. 3rd edit. 12mo., 2s. 6d.
 Cross (R.), Auvergne, its Thermo Mineral Springs. Post 8vo., 4s.
 Dixon (Joshua), Church Catechism Illustrated. 13th edit. 1s. and 1s. 6d.
 Donelan (A. M.), Flora Adair; or, Love Works Wonders. 2 vols. Post 8vo., 21s.
 Doudney (G. D.), Sermons and Letters. Post 8vo., 3s. 6d.
 English Cyclopædia: Arts and Sciences. Vol. IV. 4to., 12s.
 Foster (F.), Belgian Volunteers' Visit to England. 12mo., 1s.
 Furnivall (F. J.), Education in Early England. 8vo., 1s.
 Garbett (E.), Sermons to Children. 12mo., 1s. 6d.
 Garratt (S.), Pastor's Farewell: Twelve Sermons. 12mo., 3s. 6d.
 Gibbon's Law of Master and Servant. 12mo., 1s.
 Greenwell (Dora), Patience of Hope. New edit. 12mo., 3s. 6d.
 Goldsmith (O.), Works, Essays, Plays, and Poems. 12mo., 3s. 6d.
 Heroism and Adventure in the Nineteenth Century. 12mo., 2s.
 Illuminated Tablets. Packet B. 2s.
 Indian Army and Civil Service List. 12mo., 6s. and 7s. 6d.
 Intermediate State: a Poem. 12mo., 2s. 6d.
 Jeffreys (J. G.), British Conchology. Vol. IV. Marine Shells. Post 8vo., 12s.
 Jerram (C. S.), Formation of Tenses of Greek Verbs. Post 8vo., 1s. 6d.
 John Thorpe's Marriage. 2nd edit. 2 vols. Post 8vo., 21s.
 Kitto's Daily Bible Illustrations. Vol. I.—Evening. Post 8vo., 6s.
 Lea (W.), Catechisms on the Prayer Book. 2nd edit. 12mo., 1s.
 Line Upon Line. Part II. Cheap edit. 18mo., 1s. 4d.
 Little Boocsey's Travels in the South of France. 16mo., 6s.
 M'Causland (D.), Shinar: the Scriptural Record of Confusion of Languages. 12mo., 2s. 6d.
 M'Neile (H.), Church and Churches. New edit. 2 vols. 12mo., 7s.
 Merewether (J. D.), Semeli; or, the Spirit of Beauty. 3 vols. Post 8vo., 31s. 6d.
 Milman's History of Latin Christianity. New edit. Vols. IV., V., VI. 6s. each.
 Mitford (E. L.), Arab's Plague: a Tale of Morocco. 12mo., 3s. 6d.
 Model Steam Engine, How to Buy, &c. By a Steady Stoker. 12mo., 1s.
 Molesworth (G. L.), Pocket-Book of Useful Formulae and Memoranda. 13th edit. 16mo., 4s. 6d.
 Morris (E.), Practical Treatise on Shock after Surgical Operations. Post 8vo., 3s. 6d.
 Murray's Handbooks:—
 Gloucester, Worcester, and Herefordshire. 12mo., 6s. 6d.
 London. New edit. 18mo., 3s. 6d.
 Scotland. 12mo., 9s.
 Neale's Medieval Hymns and Sequences. 3rd edit. 32mo., 2s.
 Our Curate's Budget. 9th and 10th series. 12mo., 1s. each.
 Paris Guide par les principaux Ecrivains et Artistes de la France. Part II. Post 8vo., 10s.
 Parley (Peter), Universal History. New edit. 16mo., 5s.
 Polly: a Village Portrait. 2 vols. Post 8vo., 21s.
 Ramsay (Grace), A Woman's Trials. 3 vols. Post 8vo., 31s. 6d.
 Reade (C.), Griffith Gaunt; or, Jealousy. 4th edit. Post 8vo., 6s.
 Roberts (J. P.), Irrigation in Spain. 8vo., 1s.
 Roche (A.), Prosateur Francais. 8th edit. 12mo., 6s.
 Scott (John), Partisan Life with Mosby. 8vo., 10s.
 Simson and Wise's Ready Reckoner. New edit. 12mo., 3s.
 Smith's Pieces for Sabbath Schools. 12mo., 1s. 6d.
 Mushrooms and Toadstools. Post 8vo., 6s.
 Strutt (J.), Sports and Pastimes of People of England. New edit. 8vo., 4s. 6d.
 Trousseau (A.), Lectures on Clinical Medicine. Part III., 4s. Vol. I., 14s.
 Tytler (Sarah), Diamond Rose: Life, Love, and Duty. 12mo., 5s.
 Virgil's Eclogues and Georgics. By Anthon. New edit. 12mo., 4s. 6d.
 Voyage, The Plot and the Haven. 16mo., 3s. 6d.
 Weale's Series.—Dobson's Art of Building. New edit. 12mo., 1s. 6d.
 Which Shall it Be? New edit. Post 8vo., 6s.
 White (B.), Circe; or, Three Acts in the Life of an Artist. 2 vols. Post 8vo., 21s.
 (J. T.), First Latin Exercise Book. 12mo., 2s. 6d.
 Wright (H. G.), Uterine Disorders: their Constitution, Influence, and Treatment. 8vo., 7s. 6d.
 Young's Farmer's Calendar. New edit. 8vo., 12s. 6d.

SCALE OF CHARGES FOR ADVERTISEMENTS.

	£.	s.	d.
Four Lines and under	0	2	6
Each additional Line	0	0	8
Whole Column	4	0	0
Page	7	7	0

Advertisements should be forwarded to the Office, 11, Southampton Street, Strand, not later than 5 o'clock on Thursday afternoon.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

CRYSTAL PALACE.—AUGUST.—EXCURSION MONTH.—For terms for large parties apply to the Secretary.
MONDAY.—Great Popular Shilling Evening of Fireworks and Illumination of Fountains. Volunteer Salute, &c., as on occasion of Sultan's visit.
TUESDAY.—Excursion of Four Thousand Workmen of London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway Company.
WEDNESDAY.—Great Concert of the 4,500 Certificated Voices of the Tonic Sol-fa Association, including the Paris Prize Choir.
MONDAY TO FRIDAY.—One Shilling.
SATURDAY.—Grand Popular Concert. Half-a-crown, or by Guinea Season Ticket free. Present issue dates twelve months from 1st August.
NOTE.—The Wonderful Life-raft which recently crossed the Atlantic, on view daily.

GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY.—MONTHLY and **WEEKLY TICKETS** are issued daily at **REDUCED FARES** to **WALTON-ON-THE-NAZE**, Dovercourt, Harwich, Aldborough, Lowestoft, Yarmouth, and Hunstanton.

GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY.—A DAY at the **SEA-SIDE.**—Every Sunday and Monday, **SPECIAL EXCURSION TRAIN** to **WALTON-ON-THE-NAZE** and **HARWICH**, leaving the Bishopsgate Station at 9.0 a.m. on Sundays, and 8.30 a.m. on Mondays.—Fares, &c., as first class, 5s. 6d. second, and 3s. third.

GREAT EASTERN RAILWAY.—CHEAP EXCURSION to **BROXBORNE** and **RYE HOUSE** every Sunday at 10 a.m., and every Monday at 9.30 a.m.—Fares, 3s. 6d. first class, 2s. 6d. second, and 1s. 6d. third. For further particulars see handbills and time-books of the Company.

PARIS EXHIBITION!

VISITORS CAN BE INSURED AGAINST
RAILWAY ACCIDENTS ON THE JOURNEY THERE AND BACK,
 OR AGAINST

ACCIDENTS of ALL KINDS on the DOUBLE JOURNEY
 as well as **DURING THEIR STAY IN PARIS.**

The Tickets may be obtained at the
PRINCIPAL RAILWAY STATIONS in the Kingdom;
 Of the **COMPANY'S LOCAL AGENTS**;
 At **COOK'S EXCURSION OFFICE, 98, FLEET STREET**;
 And at the Offices, 10, **REGENT STREET**, and 64, **CORNHILL**.
W. J. VIAN, Secretary.
RAILWAY PASSENGERS' ASSURANCE COMPANY.

IMPERIAL FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY.
 1, OLD BROAD STREET, and 16 and 17, PALL MALL, LONDON.

ESTABLISHED 1803.

Subscribed and Invested Capital and Reserve Fund, £1,900,000.

Losses paid, £3,000,000.

Fire Insurances granted on every description of property at home and abroad, at moderate rates.

Claims liberally and promptly settled.

All policies are now entitled to the recent reduction in the duty to 1s. 6d. per cent., whether covering buildings, furniture, or stock.

JAMES HOLLAND, Superintendent.

IMPERIAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
 INSTITUTED 1820.

Eighty per cent. of the Profits divided among the Assured every Fifth Year. Assurances of all kinds, Without Profits, at considerably Reduced Rates. Policies granted at very Low Rates of Premium for the First Five Years. The most Liberal Conditions in respect of Foreign Residence and Travel, Return of Lapsed Policies and Surrender Values. Whole World Licences, free of charge, when the circumstances are favourable. Endowments for Children.

The revised Prospectus, with full particulars and tables, to be obtained at the Company's Offices in London, 1, Old Broad-street, E.C., and 16, Pall Mall, S.W., and of the Agents throughout the Kingdom.

ANDREW BADEN, Actuary.

UNIVERSITY LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY
 EXTENSION TO FOUNDATION SCHOOLS.

Additions for 40 years average nearly 2 per cent. per annum.

CHARLES M'CABE, Secretary.

24, Suffolk-street, London, S.W.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, London, 43 and 45, Harley-street, W.
 Incorporated by Royal Charter, 1853, for the General Education of Ladies, and for Granting Certificates of Knowledge.

PATRONS.

Her Majesty the QUEEN.

H.R.H. the Princess of WALES.

Visitor—The Lord Bishop of LONDON.

Principal—The Very Rev. the Dean of WESTMINSTER.

Lady Resident—Miss PARRY.

The College will reopen for the Michaelmas Term on Thursday, October 10th. Individual instruction is given in vocal and instrumental music to pupils attending at least one class.

Special conversation classes in modern languages will be formed on the entry of six names.

Pupils are received from the age of 13 upwards. Arrangements are made for receiving boarders.

Prospectuses, with full particulars as to fees, scholarships, classes, &c., may be had on application to Miss Milward, at the College Office.

E. H. PLUMPTRE, M.A., Dean.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE SCHOOL, 43 and 45, Harley-street, W.

Lady-Superintendent—Miss HAY. Assistant—Miss WALKER.

The classes of the School will reopen on Thursday, Sept. 26th. Pupils are received from the age of five upwards.

Prospectuses, with full particulars, may be had on application to Miss Milward at the College Office.

E. H. PLUMPTRE, M.A., Dean.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE, Isle of Man.
TRUSTEES.

His Excellence the Lieut.-Governor. Her Majesty's 1st Deemster.
 The Lord Bishop. His Honour the Clerk of the Rolls.
 The Attorney-General. The Ven. the Archdeacon.

Principal and Dean of the Chapel—The Rev. JOSHUA JONES, D.C.L., Senior Mathematical and Johnson Mathematical Scholar, Oxford.

Vice-Principal—The Rev. WM. HEATON, M.A., Cambridge.

Bursar and Third Master—The Rev. E. SCOTT, M.A., Dublin.

Master of the Military, Civil, and Commercial Department—The Rev. H. C. DAVIDSON.

Mathematical Master—G. Metcalfe, Esq., M.A., Cambridge.

First Assistant Master—F. A. Dawe, Esq., B.A., Cambridge.

Second Assistant Master—H. Johnston, Esq., Edinburgh.

French and German Master and Teacher of Sanscrit—M. Victor Piégnot.

Member of the Asiatic Society of Paris.

Drawing Master and Teacher of Surveying—J. T. Kiddle, Esq.

Drill Master—Sergeant-Major Wilson.

Pupils are prepared for the Universities of England and Ireland, the Military Colleges, the Civil Service, the public examinations for admission to the army and navy, the preliminary law and medical examinations, and for mercantile purposes.

Pupils are also prepared for the India Civil Service examinations, and previous instruction is given in Sanscrit.

The greatest attention is given to the religious and moral training of the pupils. There are Exhibitions open to all, to Oxford, Cambridge, and Trinity College, Dublin; value £40 per annum, and tenable for four years.

The charges for board and education, without extras, vary from 35 guineas to 45 guineas per annum, according to age. The College is in a very salubrious situation, near the sea.

Further particulars can be obtained on application to the Principal.

The College will reopen August 9th.